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ABSTRACT

The contents of this volume are directed to designers and managers of staff development programs. It is designed to provide a systemic consideration of all factors involved, including the long-range goals of staff development, the behaviors of the people involved, the interface of existing organizational structures, and the mechanisms for program planning and development. The potential for systemic educational programs is described, models of programs are presented, and implications for teacher education are discussed. The dimensions of educational systems and change are outlined in the first two chapters. Chapters 3 and 4 focus on changing people. The attitudes, aptitudes, perspectives, and values of the professional staff to be trained, the trainers of the staff, and the community as a composite of individuals, are considered as interacting elements in the change process. The fifth and sixth chapters examine inservice education from the communication/organizational perspective. The structures for staff development programs are described in rural and urban setings. The last section considers programs and their development. Emphasis is placed on the importance of needs assessment in developing an inservice program. An approach to planning that has proved effective in a number of workshops is provided. (JD)

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Staff Development and Educational Change

Edited by
Daniel Duston & Peter Ponder

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Staff Development
&
Educational Change

edited by

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Foreword

The inevitability of change is perhaps one of the few things in our lives which remains constant. As an association which strives to bring about change in teacher education, ATE takes great pride in bringing this publication, *Staff Development and Educational Change*, to the educational community. Its careful organization and inviting readability will be appreciated by educators as they work their way through the disorganized piles of dull materials covering their desks.

A practical book, it explores issues seldom touched upon, such as inservice education for college faculty and the relationship of adult learning development and inservice teacher education, and provides examples of the problems discussed.

The Association of Teacher Educators has long held that teacher education is best served by the combined efforts of the schools, the colleges and universities, and the appropriate agencies. We believe that this publication successfully exhibits the results of such an effort.

ATE is most appreciative of the contributions of the many educators and administrators whose joint efforts brought this publication into being. It is "must" reading for anyone concerned with the continuing education of teachers.

Robert J. Stevenson
Executive Secretary
Association of Teacher Educators

Preface

The importance of staff development has never been so strongly supported as today. Both teacher educators in colleges and universities and teachers in schools need continually to update their knowledge and skills. The tragedy in American education is that, in spite of the high interest in staff development, current efforts are meager with trivial results in terms of the demands of the teaching profession.

While limited resources can be blamed for much of the ineffectiveness in existing programs, a more fundamental reason could be the lack of systemic consideration of all factors involved, including the long-range goals of staff development, the behaviors of the variety of people involved, the interface of existing organizational structures, and the mechanisms for program planning and development.

In this volume the authors, from rich backgrounds of experience, treat several aspects of staff development programs that are often overlooked: staff development as a vehicle for planned change, adult development, staff development for faculties of colleges and universities, communication structures in staff development programs, and reality-based planning. The contents of this volume are directed to designers and managers of staff development programs for the purpose of adding critical elements and ideas to their repertoire that will increase their planning and management capabilities. It is not the intent of this volume to be a complete handbook on staff development programs, but rather to provide a new look at program

elements that are crucial to the design of effective growth experiences for educational personnel.

We are indebted to a number of persons:

James Steffensen listened attentively to a brief explanation of what we were about, and provided the support needed to carry the project to fruition. We have worked with Jim for over a decade now, and revere him as a singular individual quietly, but forcefully, sizing up and shaping a number of the true innovations in teacher education. We owe him a debt a gratitude that goes beyond this volume, and indeed encompasses many people he has aided over the years.

Floyd Waterman provided the usual competent support for the volume. He read chapters and made many recommendations that finally shaped the character of the book.

The pulse and rhythm belong to Joan M. Krager, who is more than an editor. Joan probed and pressed for excellence in content and clarity in delivery. To her we owe a special debt of gratitude.

To the Association of Teacher Educators, its Executive Director, Robert Stevenson, who wrote the Foreword, and to Bets Manara, Vice-Chair of the Communications Committee, who reviewed the manuscript, we are grateful.

Finally, to the authors who wrote, rewrote, and did not complain, thanks.

August 1980

W.R.H.
R.P.

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PART I

Accommodating Change

Every few years, the educational community discovers a new approach to improving the education of its children and youth. During the late 1950s and early 1960s, it was curriculum reform. Academicians and subject-oriented teacher educators called for materials for children and youth that employed consistent treatments of concepts beginning with kindergarten and continuing through college. "Academic respectability" and "teacher-proof materials" were the clarion cry of educational change, particularly in the sciences and mathematics. The basic tenet of the movement was curriculum development and change, and the torch bearers were the content specialists.

It very soon became abundantly clear that materials alone did not lead to improved education–that books could not be written that were teacher proof, that teachers needed to understand the concepts they were teaching, and that they needed to be able to translate them into understandable notions for children and youth. Institutes were organized (primarily by the National Science Foundation) and the Educational Professions Development Act was passed by Congress. Teachers would be trained and trained well.

By the mid-1970s, yet another wave of potential change swept across American education. Teachers called for organizations to deal with their own staff development. The community pressed for

its own role in education. Administrators no longer tacitly accepted their role as the determiners of content, instructional practice, and personnel. From the federal government, programs required real input from the constituencies impacted by programs, including Teacher Corps, the Urban-Rural Program, Title I, and Teacher Centers. Consortia became the watchword of educational change and practitioners the leaders in the movement.

Each wave swept across the face of American education, rolled on, and left the terrain little changed. Feeble efforts were initiated with meager resources and fleeting results. Why? An analysis would suggest that each was not so successful as it could have been because of a lack of coordinated, cohesive support by a wide range of resources, persons, and strategies. The systemic approach exemplifies such a broad-based support program. In essence, it posits that, for effective change, all of the targets of a change process must be impacted if viable change is to occur. This involves isolating and working with the system's reformable elements:

- the persons involved in the educational enterprise;
- the communication systems within which organizations function;
- the programs to which the system is dedicated–including the education of students in schools and the development of educational practitioners.

Clearly, no change program will be as powerful as its potential unless it involves all three of these targets of the change process. The present volume is dedicated to describing the potential for systemic educational programs, models of such programs, and implications for teacher educators.

The major thrust is teacher inservice education or staff development. While this is one of the three targets in the systemic approach, it is used as the fulcrum in leveling viable change in educational practice. In this first year of the 1980s, educators appear to be searching for the answers to improved practice in teacher inservice education. It is our thesis that most of the inservice programs today are timid, meager responses to deep-seated needs, doomed unless the profession recognizes the need to design inservice programs while accounting for the other subsystems involved.

The three targets of change provide the organizational construct

for the volume. Following two chapters which spin out the dimensions of systems and change, Chapters 3 and 4 focus on changing people. People in this case are not only teachers but also teachers of teachers. They work in schools, intermediate units, and universities. They require continual updating and development–and, in a unified, continuous, goal-oriented fashion.

Chapters 5 and 6 examine inservice education from the communication/organizational perspective. The structures for staff development programs are described in rural and urban settings.

Finally, the last section considers programs and their development. The first chapter considers a needed and often poorly developed phase of inservice education–needs assessment. The second chapter provides an approach to planning that has proved effective in a number of workshops. Using this basic approach, educators have developed useful teacher education programs that support improved instruction.

Each section, while directing attention to an aspect of change, considers the integration of that target of change within the total system.

CHAPTER ONE

The Nature of Change in Schools and Universities

W. Robert Houston

Like Custard the Dragon in Ogden Nash's intriguing story, we may long for a "nice safe cage" where everything remains constant long enough for us to get some teaching done. But the dynamic world we are caught up in will not permit a slower tempo of change. Change, inevitable and characteristic of today's world, must be considered in any effort such as staff development.

The need to achieve stability by resisting change is as old as Western civilization. The present is comfortable in its tangibility, so much so that many people are seldom aware of it and are even less concerned with future conditions. Marshall McLuhan maintains that the present environment is invisible to those involved, becoming visible only in retrospect when it has been superseded by a new environment. His rhetorical question and exclusionary reply—"Who invented water? It wasn't a fish!"—vividly emphasize the cage within which our present perceptions of the world hold us captive.

In a period of rapidly accelerating change when the future becomes increasingly unpredictable, some comfort can be derived from the certainty that history is repeating itself. The two conflicting goals of stability and change have been dominant in the history of human thought since it was first recorded. Parmenides and Heraclitus, predecessors of the Greek philosopher Socrates, were pro-

totypes of these divergent approaches to reality. For Parmenides, stability was the one reality, continuous and changeless; change in the form of creation or passing away was inherently contradictory and illusory. For Heraclitus, the striving of opposites and consequent change was the only reality and stability was illusory, expressed in the dictum "You cannot step twice in the same river."

In our efforts to compromise these divergent views of reality, we look for any elements which remain stable among the currents of change. Without stability, there is no human identity. By extension, institutions (schools, professional organizations, universities) are viewed as constant and enduring corporate bodies. As the Parmenidean attitude prevails, historical change, if it is admitted at all, is seen as progressive and steady development within a stable framework of value.

Human systems have an enormous capacity to resist change, to return after attempts at change to a new equilibrium closely approximating the old. The more primary the system or institution—such as home, school, church—the more entrenched the resistance, and the more painfully and slowly change prevails. Yet human systems corporately are the elements which constitute society, and no reasonable human being can deny accelerated societal change in the twentieth century or anticipate anything less than greater acceleration in the twenty-first century.

The "nice safe cage" of our dragon is nothing more than another attempt at creative anachronism. We cannot admit to societal change without accepting change and planning for it within the primary elements comprising our society. Among the most primary of those elements is the school, into which our youth are led and absorbed in the process of socialization. Those of us involved in this ritual of education and socialization would rather forget about the necessity of preparing our young not so much for the tangible present as for the intangible future. Even those of us who consider ourselves "futurists" do not make predictions of future societal needs in the truest sense of the word. Defining alternatives is safer, even though it may be more complicated and subtle.

The extent to which we accept change passively is the negative criterion by which we may judge our own futurism. It is easy enough to say—and to forget—that we must prepare our students for the

future, but what have we done, what have we built into our educational system to assure this? Having generated the annual crop of trained and apprentice teachers, what have we done to assure their ability to comprehend and anticipate the future needs of their students? We must remember that, while the turn of the twenty-first century seems far in the future, many teachers of today will be in their prime at that time.

One solution we evolved to the problem of teacher preparedness for educational change was the continual inservice training for teachers mandated by most school systems, intended as a means of staff development. Critics of this solution are numerous and vocal. One of them, Louis Rubin (1971, p. 245), summarized the current view of many:

> *In-service education has indeed been virtually a lost cause . . . . teacher professional growth has not been taken seriously, it lacks a systematic methodology, and it has been managed with astonishing clumsiness. It is not surprising, therefore, that teachers have grown accustomed to its impotence, and that administrators have come to regard it as a routine exercise in futility.*

In that same volume (Rubin, 1971), Tyler outlined 125 years of inservice development. While change has occurred, the results have been neither spectacular nor pervasive. Programs are not designed to lead toward long-term proficiency, nor are they articulated into the structure or program of the schools. They have become institutional responses to institutionalized requirements rather than professional opportunities for more effective instruction.

The isolation of inservice education is a major reason for its impotence. With few exceptions, inservice programs are designed to fulfill state requirements or local school board regulations. These requirements and regulations are backed financially by less than one percent of most school district budgets. The director of staff development typically reports to an assistant superintendent who reports to the superintendent. Sometimes the chain of command reaches even lower into the district hierarchy before a responsible person is found.

Inservice strategies include such techniques as the "cafeteria ap-

proach," where it is assumed that teachers will choose what they most need and that this will indeed lead to greater effectiveness of the schooling process. Some districts confine inservice education to the building level, assuming that—without resources—the school principal will find some way to meet requirements successfully. Some conduct needs assessments: Forms are printed up presumably listing all teacher needs, teachers mark their needs validly, the needs relate to improved programs, and improved programs are generated. A study of the effects of such improved programs is almost never made. When research is conducted, the results are not used by decision-makers to improve the programs. It is little wonder that slight progress continues to be made.

Conditions such as those just described lend credence to the charges of students of professional development programs that:

1) programs are not directed toward the actual needs of practitioners;
2) practitioners are not involved in planning or implementing programs;
3) programs are not designed to bring about improved education of children and youth;
4) programs are short-term, short-sighted, lacking in specificity, and designed to occupy time rather than bring about change;
5) institutions are not committed to staff development as evidenced by the lack of financial support for these efforts; and
6) those persons developing such programs are not knowledgeable either of needs of practitioners or of effective adult instructional programs.

Actions in staff development speak louder than words. One school district, in an effort to have systematic inservice programs, emphasized mathematics one year, reading the next, and social studies the following year. Each year the new curriculum field was accompanied by a major address by the superintendent indicating this field to be the most important and vital area of the curriculum, by two half-days of inservice where a supervisor leafed through the new program while teachers attempted to following the blinding speed and confusing terminology of the presentation, and by the grumbling of teachers about the demands of new programs when they had

no support. The following year, a new curriculum area was most important and, except for the printed curriculum guides, the former one was forgotten. No follow-up, no integration with on-going progress, no assessment of effectiveness left a stronger message than the superintendent's stirring speech.

Other mixed messages about inservice training and staff development come through: Inservice is a vital enterprise, but it must be done on teachers' time. Inservice is vital to the development of our district, but participate in any session you wish. Though staff development is important, there are no funds budgeted for it. Teacher representatives determine what inservice program content will be—from a list provided by the administration.

Conflicting messages can be minimized through coordinated, systemic approaches to the improvement of schooling in which the major purposes of schools are identified, assessed in terms of implementation, and then restated as more specific goals. The goals can then be evaluated with respect to their accomplishment and used as the basis for integral program design.

A systemic approach to the problem of improving inservice education involves isolating reformable elements and dealing with them simultaneously to improve the total system. Change efforts must be designed as on-going, adaptive, and regenerative processes. The three specific elements capable of change can be isolated more or less as follows:

- *the people*—their attitudes, aptitudes, perspectives, and values—including the professional staff to be trained, the trainers of the staff, and the community as a composite of individuals;
- *the organization, administration, and communication structures* within which institutions—schools and universities—function;
- *the programs* of educational study engaged in by students in schools and by their teachers and administrators in staff development and continuing education programs.

The three elements isolated above are the basic building blocks of educational reform. In the real world, they cannot be isolated, but they can be focused on directly in the planning process and in implementing programs.

This chapter has stated a problem, emphasizing the criticism justly leveled at inservice education as it exists in the majority of educational institutions today. To offset the negative aspects of this focus on criticism, the second chapter of this book visualizes an ideal of effective inservice training and staff development emphasizing the positive aspects of effective implementation of personnel, workable communication structures, and relevant programming sustained long enough for full effectiveness and analyzed to assess its impact. The ideal is dynamic, reflecting ordinary and familiar components interacting effectively. Any element of fable in the presentation of this ideal lies in the projection of interaction, in the assumption that human efforts at cooperation and collaboration can succeed if all those involved are committed to the achievement of a goal attractive to all.

The six chapters following the statement of the problem and the ideal are grouped in two's following the outline of components just presented: the people, those who participate in inservice as teachers and administrators from schools and universities; the organization, administration, and communication structures which are created to enlarge the horizons of staff development beyond the confines of the school building; and the planning and development of programs structured to meet assessed and projected needs to the satisfaction of those involved.

In introducing the plan for this book, we mentioned the artificiality of separating these three components of change, and we would be remiss not to mention that microscopic examination of components is dangerous to any true conception of reality when doing so causes us to lose sight of operative dynamics. We started with the fable of Custard the Dragon in his nice safe cage viewing his world Parmenidically. Let us end Heraclitically with an Aesopian illustration of the interdependence of subsystems in nature provided by L. Thomas in *The Medusa and the Snail* (1979).

In the Bay of Naples biologists found that the nudibranch, a common snail, had a parasite in the form of a jellyfish attached near its mouth. Curious to learn how the jellyfish (medusa) got there, they traced the development of both the jellyfish and the snail. Though it was a parasite, the jellyfish could procreate, and its offspring floated freely and grew in the warm waters to become full-grown normal

jellyfish. Meanwhile, the snail produced larvae and these began to grow normally, but not for long. While the snail larvae were still small and young, each was swallowed but not digested by a jellyfish. Protected within the jellyfish from other threats, the larva lived off its host until it was full grown, by which time the jellyfish was reduced to a small round parasite affixed to the snail's skin near its mouth. At one time the snail was dependent on the jellyfish, while at another the jellyfish was dependent on the snail.

The analogy between this fable and staff development is not a neatly drawn circle, for the relationships in staff development are far more complex. Yet, it is clear that successful inservice programs breed persons who are not only effective practitioners but are also effective developers of other inservice programs. School districts which rely on those engaged in the process to improve it often find that interdependence, like the medusa and the nudibranch, is mutually beneficial. Teachers learn to be secure in recommending ways to improve instruction, schools adopt their recommendations, and soon the schools become dependent on the expertise of their staff in improving programs. The same happens in colleges of education, which rely on feedback from their graduates to improve programs and renew the spirit that results in more effective practice.

The story of the snail and the jellyfish also serves to remind us, when we consider systemic processes, that existing systems are temporal or time-related. The following pages should be read with this fact firmly in mind. Time is the measure of change. Temporal systems exist in conjunction with changing personal identities and changing societal needs. These changes can be correlated and institutionalized, as the next chapter will describe.

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CHAPTER TWO

Institutionalizing Change through Staff Development

Roger Pankratz

Each year thousands of new programs and practices are introduced in elementary and secondary schools as well as in institutions of higher education. Many of these are reponses to federal, state, and local mandates; other innovations are the results of funded programs designed to improve certain aspects of the curriculum; still others are the efforts of local innovators to introduce new ideas that will change current educational practices.

Although many innovative efforts include early program and material developmental activities, the typical mode for introducing new programs and practices is a staff developmental workshop or a series of workshops. These training sessions are usually designed to make the intended users of the innovation aware of the elements of the program and the skills and strategies necessary for implementation. If the early training is well executed, a segment of the user group is initially enthusiastic about the potential of the innovative program or practice for meeting perceived needs. This initial enthusiasm for a new and different approach is usually sufficient to mask the serious concerns raised by other faculty who are not sure that the new program or practice will indeed be an improvement or that they will be successful with it. However, as the program developmental effort moves from training to implementation in the

classroom or elsewhere in the real world, even some of the initial enthusiasts begin to have second thoughts about its potential for improving what presently exists. The new structures, procedures, and skills that looked rather simple in the training workshop just don't seem to work the way they were demonstrated by the staff developmental trainers.

At the same time, staff members who weren't too sure about the new program or practice from the start see their prophecy fulfilled as daily routines and concerns continue to stifle any visible signs that the new program or practice is being implemented by the rank-and-file user for whom it was intended. Consequently, after the initial push for the mandated program has died, after the funding has ended, and after the innovators have moved on to new ideas, only the remnants of program materials and reports remain as reminders that the innovation ever existed.

How do we know that the series of events just described really happens? We know this because all of us involved in education have observed and lived through this type of an experience.

But wait, it doesn't have to end like that! The outcome really can be different and, in fact, has been for some who have learned to use staff development to facilitate the change process. Consider the following alternative scenario:

Jefferson Middle School in Mid-America was faced with a state mandate to implement a basic skills improvement program. The school principal, three key teachers, and a facilitator from the local university planned together what they might do to fulfill this mandate. After a review of some needs assessment data and conversations with a number of teachers, the improvement of reading was chosen as the greatest need and concern. With some staff developmental funds, faculty from an area university were engaged to run a series of "exploration workshops" on teaching reading in content areas and alternative reading improvement programs for middle schools. This series was to last about one semester. The staff development program was given visible support by the principal and credit was offered as an incentive. About 70 percent of the faculty participated. After the exploratory workshops, the faculty of Jefferson Middle School voted to adopt a modified version of the Tri-Star reading improvement approach and agreed to develop further the skills needed to teach reading on the Tri-Star program.

The next phase of the program comprised a series of "skill development workshops." In this phase, specific structures and processes of the program were discussed and agreed to, and the teaching skills associated with the program were tried out and practiced. As in the previous phase, the skill development workshops offered teachers an opportunity to earn graduate credit. The principal's support was visible by her participation in all the training sessions. A process goal for the skill development workshops was faculty consensus on the key elements of the reading improvement program (i.e., the specific structures, processes, and behaviors that all teachers would attempt to implement) and on a date by which teachers would begin implementing all aspects of the program. The role of the university trainer was particularly crucial to this phase. Consensus was reached near the end of the semester, but not without processing a lot of staff needs, concerns, and conflicts. Administrators' support roles, just like the teachers' roles, had to be worked out as part of the innovative developmental effort.

Official implementation of the Tri-Star program began in the fall of the second year after two inservice days reorienting staff to all aspects of the agreed-upon curriculum. The start was deliberate but rocky. Managing the various parts of the program, as well as the different reading levels of students, was a difficult task for most of the staff. Therefore, "coaching to application" sessions were established on site to help teachers work out the technical problems of implementing all aspects of the Tri-Star approach in their classes. Both a school district reading consultant and a university professor provided on-site staff development four days a week through individualized conferences and group seminars to discuss common problems. Inservice days were used to work on problem areas associated with the program and to further skill development in areas of need prescribed by teachers. As the year progressed, teachers' behavior in the Tri-Star program became less mechanical and more routine. While some teachers requested more help from the trainers than others, a majority of the middle school teachers were implementing all aspects of the Tri-Star program in their classrooms by the end of the year with minimal assistance.

More than two years have passed since the first planning sessions preceding the exploration workshops. The program now is well into its second year of implementation. One of the middle school English

teachers has been given 50 percent released time to coordinate the Tri-Star program and to work with new teachers who this year joined the middle school staff. This was accomplished by regrouping classes at the request of the teaching faculty. The primary school staff developmental activity this year is "collaboration seminars," where a group of five to eight teachers who work basically with the same students form a support system, meeting every two weeks to share their experiences and to plan how they can collaborate to improve students' basic skills. Some of the support groups are even exploring the possibility of adding math and writing skills to the Tri-Star program since the basic structure and processes for teaching these skills already exist. Although Tri-Star may change in the future, two things are certain: (1) these changes will be made by a faculty decision, and (2) staff development will be involved.

The process described above is a true account of what can happen when key planners use appropriate staff developmental activities to facilitate the institutionalization of a new program or practice. The fact that Jefferson Middle School today has a reading improvement program that is part of the regular culture of the school is no accident. In the account of the program developmental effort described above, two general strategies were followed by the key planners and facilitators of the developmental process that are consistent with what is known about managing the change process. First of all, staff developmental activities offered were appropriate for the particular "stage" of the change process or the "level of use" of the innovation. Four different modes of staff development were used by design, each appropriate to a stage of the change process. A second strategy that was followed was attending to the successful outcome of critical events in the change process leading to institutionalization. During the three-year program developmental process there was a series of events that were crucial if progress toward institutionalization was to continue. A plan was developed to insure a favorable outcome of critical events. Each of these two strategies is discussed in more detail below.

"Appropriate" Staff Developmental Activities

There is merit in a cafeteria style of feeding if general nourishment is desired and if one is aware of his or her needs. However, when

there is a baby in the house, careful attention must be given to a diet appropriate to the infant's stage of development. Think of introducing an innovation as the conception and nurturing of a child to adulthood. The diet must be carefully supervised and changed to insure proper development.

A framework for analyzing the adoption of innovations has been described by Hall (Hall et al., 1975; Loucks et al., 1975). Seven "levels of use" are defined that are analagous to stages of development of an infant from birth to adulthood. Each of these levels of use or stages of growth of a new program or practice is described below (Loucks et al., 1975, pp. 8–9) in terms of the behavior of the user (teacher) of the innovation.

Level 0—Non-use: *State in which the user has little or no knowledge of the innovation, no involvement with the innovation, and is doing nothing toward becoming involved.*

Level I—Orientation: *State in which the user has recently acquired or is acquiring information about the innovation and/or has recently explored or is exploring its value orientation and its demands upon user and user system.*

Level II—Preparation: *State in which the user is preparing for first use of the innovation.*

Level III—Mechanical Use: *State in which the user focuses most effort on the short-term, day-to-day use of the innovation with little time for reflection. Changes in use are made more to meet user needs than client needs. The user is primarily engaged in a stepwise attempt to master the tasks required to use the innovation, often resulting in disjointed and superficial use.*

Level IV A—Routine: *Use of the innovation is stabilized. Few if any changes are being made in on-going use. Little preparation or thought is being given to improving innovation use or its consequences.*

Level IV B—Refinement: *State in which the user varies the use of the innovation to increase the impact on clients within immediate shere of influence. Variations are based on knowledge of both short- and long-term consequences for clients.*

Level V—Integration: *State in which the user is combining own efforts to use the innovation with related activities of col-*

leagues to achieve a collective impact on clients within their common sphere of influence.

Level VI—Renewal: *State in which the user re-evaluates the quality of use of the innovation, seeks major modifications or alternatives to the innovation to achieve increased impact on clients, examines new developments in the field, and explores new goals for self and the system.*

In the Tri-Star reading program in Jefferson Middle School, four different types of staff developmental activities were designed and offered at four different levels of use to facilitate continued growth toward a higher level. These were:

- Exploration Workshops during Level I—Orientation;
- Skills Development Workshops during Level II—Preparation;
- Coaching for Application Sessions during Level III—Mechanical Use;
- Collaboration Seminars during Levels IV and V—Routine Use, Refinement, and Integration.

During the orientation level everyone in Jefferson Middle School generally agreed that reading was a problem, but they needed to explore their concerns further and to understand the problem better. This stage of development also called for exploring the different types of reading programs that were available and drawing on the best features of several programs. The persons who comprised the instructional team for the exploration workshops had expertise in reading and in group process. Probably more time was spent during the exploration workshops in dealing with concerns and classroom problems than in giving information. The exploration phase came to a close when the total group agreed on the general approach they wanted to pursue.

During the preparation level the teachers in Jefferson Middle School were ready to explore and develop the specific skills and strategies that would eventually comprise the Tri-Star program. They were selective in choosing the skills and strategies that were presented. A frequent comment from teachers during the skills development workshop was "that sounds fine but it won't work in my situation." Such teacher concerns had to be worked through to bring everyone along in the developmental process. In the skills development workshops specific skills and strategies were presented and

tried out in a role-playing or peer-teaching situation to test their viability. Again a careful mix of content and process was necessary in the skills workshops to develop the tools to implement Tri-Star while developing ownership in the program. The skill development phase concluded with a commitment to implement the program in the following September and with agreement as to the basic elements of the program that teachers and principal would implement.

During the mechanical use level of implementation teachers were trying to make all the elements of the reading improvement program work in their classrooms. This was truly the most critical phase of the entire change process. Many of the teachers had never before taught the same content using different reading levels in the same class. Managing the many activities taking place at the same time was not easy to learn and some teachers, even after three months, weren't sure it was a good idea. "Coaching for Application," a term borrowed from Joyce and Showers (1980), involved two kinds of related staff developmental activities. Two members of the instructional staff—one from the university and one from the school system with expertise in reading education—worked out a schedule so that one or the other would be in the school three days a week to help individual teachers with instructional problems and to hold practice sessions in skill areas that seemed to be bothersome. The fact that the instructional staff was in the building on call was very important. Persons who have served as "coaches" in this phase believe this type of staff development is the most important mode if teachers are to try out and feel comfortable with new skills and strategies in the classroom.

At the routine use level and at higher levels of use, an innovation is usually considered to be institutionalized for a given teacher—that is, the new program or practice is the regular way of doing business in the classroom. This, however, is no reason for staff development to cease. Mutual support systems are needed for maintenance, refinement, and the integration of efforts. In the Jefferson Middle School "collaborative seminars" were set up for all the teachers belonging to a satellite (the school was organized into five satellites, or schools within a school). The seminar met every two weeks, much like a mini staff meeting, to focus attention on the basic skills improvement program. This mode of staff development has had other

spinoffs aside from a mutual support system for the Tri-Star Program. It has become a forum for the generation of new ideas and team problem-solving.

Each of the four different modes of staff development used in the change process at Jefferson Middle School was designed to attend to the needs and concerns of teachers at a given phase of program development. Any one of the modes would have been inappropriate for teachers at a different level of use of the Tri-Star program. While there are many possible variations of the staff developmental modes used in this particular innovation effort, the general purpose of staff developmental activities during each phase should advance the faculty member's use of the innovation toward a higher level.

Attention to Critical Events

Although staff development was the vehicle for developing, implementing, and institutionalizing the use of the Tri-Star program among teachers, there was a major effort throughout the change process to build and maintain a support system that would allow progress to continue toward the change goal. This was done by considering the various stages in the institutionalization process, and then planning for these events to occur with a favorable outcome. A critical event in this change effort was any observable occurrence (e.g., decision, vote, memo, support statement, resource allocation, commitment) that was considered essential to the continuation of progress toward the change goal.

Pankratz and associates (1980, p. 19) have described the five major stages leading to institutionalization as:

1. ***Awareness***—*recognition by appropriate persons in both the formal and informal structures of the organization that there is (a) a current goal-achievement discrepancy; and (b) an emergent need or requirement for additional programs or practices; or (c) an area of service or activity not now addressed adequately by other organizations.*
2. ***Acceptance***—*agreement by appropriate persons that a particular proposed change is an acceptable attempt to solve the problem, to meet the need or the requirement, or to develop the capability to provide service that is presently unavailable.*

3. ***Preparation***—*understanding the proposed change and willingness among personnel to participate in a trial or demonstration; evidence of adequate skill and knowledge levels to carry out needed tasks; availability of necessary resources—staff, equipment, materials, space, and training capability.*
4. ***Limited Installation***—*demonstrable operation of the change, similar to its operation if it were adopted and assimilated by the organization.*
5. ***Institutionalization***—*establishment of program or practice, operable as anticipated, and supported in processes, structures, and behaviors in the organization following the termination of the temporary system.*

While there is a close association between these five stages and Hall's levels of use described earlier, these five stages leading to institutionalization represent the organizational aspect of the process, whereas levels of use represent the programmatic aspect of change.

Figure 1 lists major critical events in each of the five stages leading to institutionalization in the Tri-Star program that were deliberately planned for or recognized as important and monitored to insure that they did occur. Events other than those listed in the figure were planned for and were important to the change process; however, those described show how a well-designed staff development plan must have a support system that removes roadblocks, insures ownership, and provides the necessary commitment of resources to operate the new program when it becomes the recognized on-going program.

Purposeful staff development is an essential ingredient to the adoption and institutionalization of most new programs and practices. It can be an extremely useful vehicle to manage the change process if it is carefully planned and orchestrated with the dynamics of the adopting organization. Before staff development can be effective in the change effort, it must become an integral part of a larger design to initiate and manage educational change. The change process requires careful attention to the programmatic and the political aspects of any innovative effort. Experience and research indicate that emphasizing one without attending to the other will yield minimal results. However, when the program development and or-

ganizational dynamics are both integrated, staff development as an effective change strategy can reach its full potential.

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Figure 1
The Five Stages Leading to Institutionalization of the Tri-Star Program in Jefferson Middle School

Stage	Major critical event	Importance
Awareness	The principal and three key teachers met and agreed that Jefferson School had a problem in the area of reading.	The school leadership (formal and informal) needed to own the problem and communicate their conclusions to teachers.
Acceptance	Near the close of the exploration workshop the faculty voted to try out (accept) the Tri-Star approach.	There needed to be formal acceptance and ownership in the program by a majority of the faculty.
Preparation	Near the end of the skills development workshop there was consensus agreement on the specific elements of Tri-Star programs.	There was need for a clear and precise definition of the program including expectations of all parties involved.
	The faculty agreed on a definite starting date.	There was need for a formal commitment from faculty to begin full implementation.
	The principal participated in skills workshops.	Administrative support was visible.
Limited installation	Instructional resource persons were acquired to serve three days a week in the school building for "coaching to application."	These resources were difficult to acquire but were essential to installation of the program.
Institutionalization	A teacher was released from 50% of teaching to serve as an on-going coordinator in the school.	There was need for an on-going support system (budget and teacher commitment).
	Collaboration seminars were established.	There was a need for an on-going formalized communication system.
	A training program was established for new teachers.	Maintenance of program beyond initial teacher group was needed.

PART II

Improving Professional Practice

The first of the three areas to be considered in planning for effective school change involves people—those persons directly engaged in educating students, and even teachers of these teachers. All must be responsive to the needs of the various communities affected by and interacting with the educational system. All must employ recent research findings in human learning processes, communications, and instructional strategies. All must utilize products of technology. All must seek processes to help themselves remain relevant.

Everyone has a perception of what a teacher is and expectations for appropriate teacher behavior. Yet teachers, like all other human beings, change and develop as individuals. Several questions are relevant in considering changes in staff development that focus directly on changing people:

- *What sets of people are part of the professional staff development programs at one time or another?*
- *To what extent are people from each of these sets knowledgeable about the program, and committed to it?*
- *Is there a training program for all program personnel (teachers, administrators, university faculty, interns, program staff)?*
- *Are opportunities for self-assessment available?*
- *What communication system links staff with staff; staff with*

students; personnel from one institution with those from another?

- *By what process is professionalism encouraged?*
- *Is there a due process or appeal system related to the training system available and known to staff?*
- *In what ways are program decisions (group decisions) related to the issue of academic freedom?*

Difficult as changing people's perceptions may be, it remains the critical task. Programs for improving staff development cannot rise above the competence of those designing and implementing them. Achieving the critical mass of changed behavior so as to tip the scale firmly in the direction of change is the goal.

CHAPTER THREE

Reflections on Adult Development: Implications for Inservice Teacher Education

Reynold Willie and **Kenneth R. Howey**

We believe that one of the cornerstones of effective staff development is adult development. We believe that adult development not only suggests but demands an expanded concept of teacher education. From this perspective, we would like to present to the reader a brief review of adult development, suggest six themes which seem to pervade the lives of adults, and indicate some implications of those themes for inservice teacher education.

What are the goals of continuing education? Numerous scholars have examined needs of specific professional groups to arrive at an answer to this question, but Houle (1967) examined needs of professionals in general and identified four broad areas which he felt were important to all who are concerned with their renewal. Practicing professionals need: (1) to keep up with new knowledge related to their professions; (2) to establish mastery of the new conceptions of their own professions; (3) to continue study of the basic disciplines which support their professions; and (4) to grow as persons as well as professionals.

The first need listed is probably the most readily recognized and receives the major share of attention given to continuing professional education. The second is closely related to the first because role changes often demand knowledge and skills different from

those previously required. Some changes might even require that the professional address fields of knowledge totally new to him. The third need, to study disciplines basic to the profession, can be ignored by the professional only at the risk of transforming himself into a technician without the knowledge to generate new alternatives in solving problems. All three of these needs have been almost universally recognized as genuine and valid.

Teachers, like professionals in other areas, are greatly affected by changes in these three broad areas identified by Houle. New knowledge, for example, must be screened for its applicability to a curriculum recently augmented by such courses as moral education, drug education, sex education, intercultural and multicultural education, and death education. Such curricular content implies new roles for teachers—counselor, behavioral analyst, social worker, dialectician, among others—with attention not only to such traditional subjects as literature and history but also to such interdisciplinary areas as social and environmental psychology. Knowledge of these is essential if a teacher is to attend intelligently to such factors as social groups, use of time and space, and biological change in the student and its effects upon learning goals. The fact that those responsible for teacher education, often at the preservice level and invariably at the inservice level, have paid but superficial attention to such basic disciplines and to unifying theoretical frameworks has lent credence to the charge that many teachers have indeed been transformed into technicians.

Houle's fourth need—the need to grow as a person as well as a professional—includes those kinds of activities which widen and deepen interests. He illustrated the need with the following statement: "A doctor may study music, a lawyer may paint, an architect may read poetry, a dentist may lead great books discussion groups, and an industrialist may photograph hummingbirds." McGlothlin (1972) shared a similar perspective:

> *. . . only as the practicing professional grows as a person can he draw easily from the experience and knowledge of other professions to add to the significance of his own. If he works only within the established boundaries of his own profession, he will find it impossible to formulate solutions for problems which cut across professions and disciplines, laughing at the artificial distinctions which men have made in classifying knowledge*

> *and conducting research. None of our major problems—world peace, racial harmony, equal justice, universal opportunity in education, employment, and health, urban living of satisfactory quality—none of these problems can be solved by a single profession or a single discipline. It seems to have taken engineers some years to discover that four-lane highways have impacts on other lives than those of automobiles . . . .*

Thus, we have personal growth activities justified as essential to intellectual vitality and emotional fulfillment in the former context and as requisite to the confrontation of issues and problems cutting across disciplines in the latter context. Notwithstanding its desirability and essentiality, most professional groups, including teachers, have not formally accepted personal growth either as part of the relicensure or recertification process or as experiences accreditable for employment or salary advances. There are many reasons for this, not the least of which is that other forms of development are seen as more central to the professional role and hence more essential.

There is still another dimension of the person which may not be ignored if we are to achieve authentic forms of teacher education. That dimension is adult *development*, a concept which we view quite differently from adult *growth*. It creates a fifth need—the need to understand the interaction of physiological, psychological, and social aspects in human development and the impact of that interaction upon one's self and the people one serves. Some writers (Stensland, 1973; Hughes, 1958) have suggested that the basic justification for a profession is service to others. This is surely true of teaching. Such service demands an understanding of both others and self. In this chapter we wish to expand upon the concept of adult development and present the argument that this dimension of the professional interacts with and, in fact, shapes attitudes and behaviors in the four areas noted by Houle. Reviewing several theories of adult development may help to explain the validity of this emphasis.

Adult Development

Some facets of adult development (arbitrarily stated here as that portion of human development which takes place after the individual is beyond eighteen years of age) are frequently easy to de-

scribe but rarely easy to explain. Most of us observe bits of adult behavior and impose an order upon them, an order which may be uniquely ours but which nonetheless helps us predict what others will do and, in turn, helps us select our own behavior. In doing so, we are engaging in a kind of theorizing about adult behavior.

Bischof (1969) stated, for example, that "developmental psychologists labor under the difficulty of not following, or knowing exactly what is, their theoretical base." He suggested that at least twelve possibilities exist for theory formulation in studying developmental aspects of adults, among them a stability theory suggesting that age produces stability; a life span theory suggesting that as the adult progresses through a life span, the individual's goals become easier to identify and define and may reduce in number; a reversal theory suggesting that the life cycle would reverse itself during the later years with adult personality regressing through an antique form of adolescence and falling into second childhood; a need hierarchy theory suggesting that human aging will correlate positively to fulfilling the needs put forth by Maslow; and a masculine/feminine theory suggesting that males and females begin life uniquely homogeneous in behavior and manner, encounter the greatest differences in the middle years of life, and become uniquely homogeneous again in later years.

Chickering (1974) divided adult development theories into two basic groups: developmental *stage* theories and developmental *age* theories. Theorists tend to develop concepts and systems of relationships consistent with their own orientations so that those developed by a psychologist, for example, will differ from those developed by a sociologist or a biologist. Consequently, stage and age are elusive concepts and deserve some attention here, however brief.

Developmental Stages

The Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget evolved a system of stages which Kohlberg (1973) defined rigidly, drawing upon Piaget's writing for general characteristics:

1) Stages imply distinct or qualitative differences in structures (modes of thinking) which perform the same function (e.g., intelligence) at various points in development.
2) Different structures form an invariant sequence, order, or

succession in individual development. Although factors may accelerate, slow, or stop development, the sequence does not change.

3) Each of the different and sequential modes of thought forms a structured whole. A response on a task does not represent a specific response determined by familiarity with that task or tasks similar to it. The response presents an underlying thought organization.
4) Stages are hierarchical integrations. Stages form an order of increasingly differentiated and integrated structures to fulfill a common function. Higher stages reintegrate the structures found at lower stages.

Kohlberg's notion of stage involves changes in quality, competence, and form rather than in quantity, performance, and content as one moves from one stage to another. Structural stages tell less about *what* information a person may possess but more about *how* he is using that information; less about *what* a person is performing but more about *how* he is performing; and less about *what* he is thinking but more about *how* he is thinking.

While Piaget and others pioneered investigation into the structural stages of cognitive development in children, it is only recently, especially in the last decade and a half, that another generation of scholars has searched for the existence of structural stages relative to various dimensions in the development of adults. Using the structural stage model, theorists have focused on different aspects of the person. Kohlberg proposed a scheme for moral development; Loevinger and Wessler (1970) for ego development; Harvey, Hunt, and Schroder (1961) for conceptual systems development; and Perry (1970) for intellectual and ethical development. Other schemata have been developed and still others are being proposed.

The notion of structural stages has great implications for the teacher. All teachers in a given school and grade level, for example, may select the same social studies textbook but likely use it with considerable variation. For one teacher if may be the basic source of information, material to be mastered. Instruction converges toward *a priori* answers. For another teacher the text may be but one of many sources of data representing opinions and positions which must be debated, criticaly tested, and, at best, seen as tentative. This is not

just a matter of personal preference. The developmental level of the teacher (and, we might add, of the author of the text) may well provide insight not only into how one is teaching but also *how one is able to teach*. We suggest that developmental stage theory can be helpful to a teacher not only in understanding students' behavior but also in understanding his or her own instructional behavior.

The cognitive stage model developed by Harvey, Hunt, and Schroeder (1961), one of the first models developed, and an excellent example of structural stage theory, is concerned with the pattern of beliefs, attitudes, and values through which one interprets experience. Learning is defined in terms of how concepts are acquired—the *rational* processing of information. Concepts themselves function in an interrelated fashion and identifiable conceptual systems evolve through which information and experience are filtered and evaluated. Levels of conceptual development are differentiated primarily by degrees of abstractness as opposed to more concrete functioning. Four conceptual stages are posited in which the individual (1) is viewed as basically self-centered with an orientation toward external causality and the primacy of concrete rules; (2) can examine himself apart from external standards and conditions; (3) moves to an even more personal introspection; and (4) finally achieves a more integrated and truly independent set of internal standards which may or may not coincide with cultural norms and external pressures.

More abstract or advanced conceptual systems have been associated in a number of studies (Hunt, 1971; Joyce and Weil, 1972) with creativity, greater cognitive flexibility, a wider range of coping behaviors, and a greater tolerance for stress. Evidence suggests that continuing teacher education should focus on schemata designed to promote more positive psychological growth in terms of increased cognitive complexity.

Developmental Ages

Structural stages of development are not age related. While he carefully refrained from relating a moral development stage to a specific chronological age range, Kohlberg acknowledged that his data indicate that no adults have reached the higher two stages of moral development before ages 23 and 30 respectively. Yet there are

others who have advanced conceptions of adult development that are age related. Chickering (1974) noted that "some researchers take chronological age as a major variable and search for general orientations, problems, developmental tasks, personal concerns or other characteristics associated with particular periods."

Age theorists are interested in determining if there are concerns, problems, and tasks which are common to most or all adults at various times in their lives; in explaining why those concerns, problems, and tasks loom more prominently at one time of life rather than at another; and in describing how they affect adult behavior. Birren (1964) wrote: "Age is a useful and powerful index in classifying large amounts of information—knowing an individual's chronological age, one can make a number of predictions about his most likely anatomical, physiological and psychological and social characteristics." Levinson et al. (1976) wrote of "generating and working with hypotheses concerning *relatively universal, genotypic, age-linked, adult developmental periods* within which variations occur."

Age theorists use the term stage in a manner very much unlike that of stage theorists such as Kohlberg. The term does not have the rigid and precise meaning that Kohlberg attached to it. Since age theorists do not accept the notion that differences exist in structure or quality from one stage to another or that stages are hierarchical integrations, they are much less discriminating in their employment of the term. Other commonly used terms are life periods, positions, passages, transitions, and life course.

Many theorists are searching for age-linked developmental periods. Levinson et al. (1974, 1976, 1978) identified *periods of transition* in the lives of men and detailed the paths which people follow, e.g., leaving the family, getting into the adult world, and settling down. Gould (1972, 1978) projected a similar set of *stages of life* and Sheehy (1974, 1976) popularized the notion of age-linked behavior called *passages*.

While Chickering suggested that there are two major lines of inquiry into adult development, not all writers can be classified in this manner. Two who do not fit easily into stage or age theory are Neugarten and Erikson. Neugarten (1968) stated that time rather than age is the critical variable in adult development. She wrote that age does not explain nor does it predict behavior well. The timing of

life events, on the other hand, provides some of the most powerful cues to adult personality. Our society is age graded and people learn to do what is expected of them at any given age. Psychology of adulthood is the psychology of time. In a strict sense, Neugarten cannot be described as an age theorist but, since she focused more closely on the roles of age and time in adult development rather than on structural, qualitatively different stages through the life span, her work appears more compatible with that of Levinson and Gould than it does with that of Kohlberg and Loevinger.

Erikson (1950, 1963) has had a profound influence on more recent developmental psychologists. He charted the course of personality development by postulating eight universal stages of psychosocial growth with each stage representing a major crisis faced in the normal course of life. Each crisis calls for a central developmental task. The sequence—and the polar aspects—of the crises are (1) trust versus mistrust, (2) autonomy versus shame and doubt, (3) initiative versus guilt, (4) industry versus inferiority, (5) identity versus role confusion, (6) intimacy versus isolation, (7) generativity versus stagnation, and (8) ego integrity versus despair. Although the sequence forms a logical series of stages, the stages are not hierarchical and therefore do not meet Piaget's and Kohlberg's notions of stage.

Adult Development and Teacher Education

Conceptions of adult development have all but been ignored in teacher education programs. Yet the consideration and inclusion of what is now known about adult development in both preservice and inservice education could prove to be most beneficial. An understanding of theories of development—both stage and age—can be of help to teachers in several ways. For example, it appears that teachers at more advanced stages of conceptual development as delineated by Hunt (1971) demonstrate a number of desirable teaching behaviors more often than do teachers at less complex stages.

It should be noted that the majority of adults, including teachers, assessed in terms of the conceptual levels described by Hunt, are at the less complex stages, i.e., Level I and transition to Level II (Hunt, 1971). In recognition of that situation, Hunt and Sullivan (1974), Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1980), and Santmire (n.d.), among others,

developed teacher education activities using developmental psychology as the conceptual framework. They contend that each developmental stage has its own characteristics which shape *how* thinking occurs and that certain requisities must be acquired before an individual can easily move to the next stage. Thus, they matched educational environments with the current stage characteristics of an individual to facilitate the acquisition of more complex teaching behaviors. This kind of teacher education is in its infancy but developmental psychologists immersed in structural stage theory may well provide us with crucial insights into the types of instructional environments needed for certain types of learners to reach certain types of goals.

On the other hand, those concerned with age-related dimensions of adult development appear to have much to suggest which would also prove beneficial in the design and implementation of inservice teacher education programs. Assessment of teacher needs has typically been a superficial as well as a narrow process. It has been based largely upon self perceptions by teachers of their "deficits" relative to school curricula and instructional methodology. Scant attention has been given to diagnosis of the school as an organization or the teacher as an individual with personal concerns. It is to teachers' personal concerns that we wish to devote the remainder of this chapter because we believe consideration and inclusion of them in inservice planning will lead to programs which will accommodate the individual teachers better than existing ones do.

Adult Concerns and Adult Development

Some observers believe that turmoil and crisis occur in the lives of men and women on a fairly predictable schedule (e.g., the mid-life crisis); others believe that they occur around unpredictable common events (e.g., the death of a spouse). Scheduled or unscheduled, the turmoil is often deep enough and the crisis severe enough to prevent full functioning in both personal and professional life. The *content* of thought at the time of turmoil and crisis, we believe, is likely to fall into one or more of six broad, sometimes overlapping, areas. These areas are like threads which run through one's life and have great potential for altering behavior. These areas include reaction to

physiological change, search for intimacy, interaction with life's work, quest for meaning, development of one's sexuality, and acceptance of termination.

Reaction to Physiological Change

Aging has two commonly accepted meanings. In one sense aging is a physiological process beginning at conception, continuing across the life span, accelerating with increasing chronological age, and ending only with death. In this usage, aging includes not only the deterioration of later years but also the development of earlier years. In another sense aging is equivalent to growing old and is used to describe only the later years in the process noted immediately above. In this usage the term is without precise definition. The body of literature on physiological change across the life span is enormous. Certainly, information with potential impact upon continuing professional education can be drawn from it.

Research so far has failed to identify satisfactorily the causes of physiological change across the life span. A variety of theories have been proposed. They range from those suggesting that change is genetically programmed (hereditary factors), through those suggesting that factors external to the individual determine longevity (environmental factors such as quality of air breathed and type of food eaten), through those suggesting that tissues wear out with time and constant use or that malfunctions in cells lead to cell death (physiologocial factors).

Changes of particular concern to us in the teacher education context occur in the senses, the muscular-skeletal system, and the central nervous system.

Four of the five senses—vision, hearing, taste, and smell—show age-related decline in competence. Ability to focus on a close object (accommodation), to see clearly at a distance (acuity), and to see under dark conditions (adaptation to darkness) all decrease with age. Ability to hear sounds in all frequency ranges and particularly in the higher frequencies also decreases with age. Ability to taste and smell decreases as taste and smell receptors deteriorate.

Some muscles of the body, the voluntary or striped, give movement and appearance to the body. These decline in mass and are replaced by fatty tissue. Beginning in the late twenties or early thir-

ties, a decline in strength may be noticed. Other muscles, the involuntary or smooth, regulate bodily functions and change only minimally through the life span. Both heart and lung efficiency decrease through the years but the losses may be caused by factors other than muscle strength. Bones become more fragile, less elastic, more likely to fracture, and slower to heal with the passage of time.

The speed of the functioning of the central nervous system decreases with age. Tests of reaction time do show a slowing of functioning but clear evidence does not exist to explain why slowing occurs.

Long and Ulmer (1972) divided physiological change into two types: private and public. Private changes are those which are internal and which may not be detected without the use of sophisticated tests. Examples of private changes given by Long and Ulmer include hormone alterations and brain shrinkage. Public changes, on the other hand, are those which are external and which are easily detected by others. Bischof (1976) noted that the most apparent external or public changes occur in face, figure, and skin texture. Hair becomes gray, thin, or lost; the skin becomes wrinkled, dry, pale, less elastic, and spotted; gait changes and movement slows; the voice loses some of its timbre and quality; and the body decreases in height and increases in weight.

Both private and public changes can have profound effects upon the teacher and therefore have implications for the design as well as the content of inservice education. Because speed and strength decline with age, most teachers cannot perform some tasks as quickly or as well as they once did nor can they stay at them as long. Yet we persist in conducting most inservice at the end of the school day when the physical resources of all teachers, and especially older teachers, are spent. Little wonder then that under these conditions inservice has been described by Flanders (1963) as a gigantic spectator event! Despite its importance, inservice education is still seen as an after-hours activity basically separate and apart from the job of teaching rather than an activity integrated and embedded in the job (Howey, 1976).

Public physiological changes may have even greater consequences than private changes because they may seriously distort the self-concept. Teachers may be subject to this source of stress more than

other professionals because of the environment in which they work. Consider, if you will, the effect of a deteriorating appearance accompanying the aging process, as described earlier by Bischof, on a teacher who year after year faces a continuing wave of youth. Teachers spend the larger part of their waking hours in a world populated by young people who serve as sharp contrast and constant reminders of the passage of one's own time.

Changes such as the above rarely result in any role alteration or modification for teachers. Neither have analysis and discussion of these changes appeared as content for inservice education. Opportunities for individuals to learn about the aging process in adults as well as children and to share with one another changes in themselves and the effects of those changes on their work are rare in the content of continuing professional development. Nonetheless, to put it simply and straightforwardly: How I feel, even how I look, greatly affects what I do. This dimension of development cannot continue to be divorced from continuing teacher education.

Search for Intimacy

What is intimacy? Some people, most notably writers of the popular press, easily provide meanings for the term; others, particularly theorists and researchers, only hesitatingly approach it.

Erikson (1950, 1963), addressing the concept and building around it his sixth stage of man, postulated that when the young adult emerges from his search for identity he is eager and willing to fuse his identity with the identity of others, i.e., to develop intimate relationships. He described intimacy as the capacity of an individual to commit himself to concrete affiliations and partnerships and to hold to the commitment even though it may call for significant sacrifices. To Erikson intimacy is ideally achieved in relationship with one of the opposite sex.

Newman and Newman (1975) defined intimacy as including "the ability to experience an open, supportive, tender relationship with another person, without fear of losing one's own identity in the process of growing close." They stated that intimacy is generally established within the context of marriage but that marriage, by definition, does not produce it. Lowenthal and Haven (1968) stated that there are other viable forms of intimacy which are not necessar-

ily experienced as substitutes for, or supplements to, a stable heterosexual relationship. Many people not in the psychoanalytic tradition concur with them. Lowenthal and Weiss (1976) described interpersonal intimacy as a complex concept, both theoretically and operationally. They stated that the major components in an intimate relationship include similarity, reciprocity, and compatibility. Kimmel (1974) described an intimate relationship as one in which an individual is able to confide in someone or talk about oneself and one's problems. Bischof (1976) used the noun form of intimate as a synonym for friend and the adjective form as a descriptor of friend. Though they may define the term differently, all agree on its importance.

Angyal (1965) stated that establishing and maintaining a close relationship is "the crux of our existence from the cradle to the grave." Nouwen (1969) wrote that the struggle for intimacy has become the struggle of modern man. He wrote:

> *We probably have wondered in our many lonely moments if there is a corner in this competitive, demanding world where it is safe to be relaxed, to expose ourselves to someone, and to give unconditionally. It might be very small and hidden. But if this corner exists, it calls for a search through the complexitites of our human relationships in order to find it.*

Lowenthal and Weiss (1976) noted that histories and case studies and clinical, personal, and observational experiences all attest to the fact that the availability of an intimate other can help ease one through stressful periods of life. Both Jourard (1964) and Taylor (1968) noted that men, less likely to have confidants than women, probably experience the shorter life expectancy of the two sexes for the very reason that they are unable to disclose themselves intimately to others.

Lowenthal and Haven, in their study of intimacy in a group of people aged 60 and older, found that maintenance of an intimate relationship (confidant) served as a buffer against social losses such as reduction of social interaction because of loss of role. Participants in the study who had a stable intimate relationship were less likely to be depressed than were participants who lacked this relationship even after such a significant loss as the death of the marriage partner.

Erikson (1950) stated that the danger of the sixth developmental stage of man (isolation) is the avoidance of a commitment to intimacy. Lowenthal and Haven, while acknowledging that some who have been isolated all their lives may indeed possess good mental health, concluded, "We are reminded once more of Angyal's guiding thesis, that the maintenance of closeness with another is the center of existence up to the very end of life."

The paucity of references to the quality, depth, or reciprocity of personal relations in social science literature may reflect a paucity of close and personal working relationships in the social sciences. Certainly this is characteristic of most teaching situations. Despite the large number of interactions with students each day, teaching has been characterized as a lonely profession. The ability to experience open, supportive even tender relationships not only with students but also with colleagues, we believe, is essential to good teaching. The need to enhance such relationships has direct implications for both the design and the content of teacher inservice education.

Our relationships with others and the manner in which those relationships shape our own development should be central to the study teachers engage in. We suspect that reciprocity, self-disclosure, and mutual respect are essential ingredients in most authentic forms of teaching and learning. However, most of what we currently refer to as inservice is characterized by sterility and lack of personalization. Highly ritualized and formalized roles of teacher and student—even though the students are adults and teachers themselves—often predominate.

The very essense of teacher inservice education is viewed here as a team or small group of teachers who work together on a continuing basis, who have developed a sense of mutual trust and respect, and who are able daily to provide one another with accurate, precise, and humane feedback about their behavior in the classroom. Inservice education should be a natural, on-going process which, in an atmosphere of respect, admiration, and, yes, even love, fosters cooperative problem-solving, curriculum development, and exploration with the art and science of teaching.

We do not believe that this is mere sentimentality. If intimacy is a major developmental task of adulthood, and if the struggle for inti-

macy is the struggle of modern man, then continuing education must address this very basic need.

Interaction with Life's Work

Entry into full membership in adult society ordinarily demands economic self-support. For most of us economic self-support must be interpreted as work. Work is no small part of the average person's life. Brim (1976) noted that work still takes the largest single percentage of one's waking hours.

Ginzberg et al. (1951) hypothesized three chronological time periods related to vocational choice: ages 6–11, fantasy; ages 11–17, tentative; and ages 17 and over, reality. In the fantasy age, the child most often talks of occuptations which are the most familiar or the most glamorous to him. There is no match between the abilities and interests which the child holds and those the occupation demands. In the tentative ages, abilities are recognized and a variety of occupations are considered and rejected. In the reality ages, the desires of the individual are compromised with the reality of life and the individual begins his life's work.

To Erikson (1963) entry into the adult occupational role, as well as entry into the parental role, identifies the beginning of the stage generativity versus stagnation. He wrote, "and indeed, the concept generativity is meant to include such more popular synonyms as *productivity* and *creativity*, which however cannot replace it."

From their studies of forty adult males, Levinson et al. (1974, 1976, 1978) proposed a series of life periods: (a) *Getting Into the Adult World* covers the period from the early 20's to the late 20's. A major developmental task of the period is to form an occupation and make an initial commitment to it. (b) *Age Thirty Transition* includes the four- to six-year period around age 30. The transitional period provides an opportunity to modify or drastically change the occupation formed in the preceding period. (c) *Settling Down* describes the decade of the 30's. The task of the period is to build a more stable life structure. The individual invests himself more in his work. This involves "planning, striving, moving onward and upward, having an inner timetable that contains major goals and way stations and ages by which they must be reached." BOOM (Becoming One's Own Man) is a time of peaking and culminating of the Settling Down

period and serves as a connecting link to the following period. (d) *Mid-Life Transition* includes the years around age 40. The tasks of the period are to reappraise and modify the life structure of the late 30's, to rediscover important but neglected parts of the self, and to make new choices which provide the basis for the life structure of the next period. Performing the tasks may involve considerable turmoil. The authors proposed that "the sense of disparity between 'what I've reached at this point' and 'what I really want' instigates a soul-searching for 'what it is I really want.' " (e) *Restabilization and the Beginning of Middle Adulthood* becomes a period beginning in the mid-forties. The authors portrayed the period as one with possibility for developmental advance and of great threat to self. Levinson et al. assume that there are further periods but their study ended at this point. The centrality of one's work in this schema is obvious.

Bischof (1976) stated that the occupation becomes the individual's way of life and directly affects the clothes he wears, the way he walks, the speech patterns he uses, and the friends he has. Neugarten (1968) wrote that men perceived a close relationship between life-line and career-line.

The observations—both formal and informal—of these and other theorists, researchers, and writers consistently affirm the importance of work in the lives of people. Brim (1976) summarized it well when he wrote:

> *The search for self-esteem—to be valued by others who matter, and to be valued by oneself; to feel in control of the world, one's life course, time, and self in its values and behavior; to believe one is distinctive, unique even, that one accounts for something special in the common pilgrimage of man; to sense personal growth and development so that one is something more than as a week ago—the pursuit of these and other elements in the summary sense of self-esteem pervades the work of most people.*

And later: "The aspirations in life that men set for themselves are primarily expressed through the institution of work."

There is increasing evidence that the status of teacher is diminishing not only within the larger public sector but also within the ranks of teachers themselves. If the relationship between career-line and life-line noted by Neugarten does exist, the status of the teacher as a person is probably also diminishing.

We can advance a number of reasons for the diminishing status of teachers. Perhaps the major reason is simply that the public has placed unrealistic expectations on teachers who, in many contexts, must work with inadequate resources or that the public has placed unrealistic expectations on all students to achieve what a few years ago only a select number were expected to achieve. Whatever the causes—and they are surely many and complex—the profession must redesign the job of teaching so as to satisfy the publics which it serves as well as to satisfy the basic developmental needs of the person who occupies the role. Inservice education *can* assist in that major task.

Historically, inservice education has assumed a reactive, teacher-*deficit* stance. The focus has been on a concept of schooling that has one teacher responsible for twenty-five or more learners at any given time. When problems occurred, as they must in this context, remediation was focused upon the individual teacher and addressed what he or she could do to improve the curriculum or enhance learning for the pupils. The teacher in this scenario was viewed as a reservoir of techniques and inservice education as an additive process through which the number of techniques was increased. The situation remains with us to the present time. In the plethora of today's needs, such as improving discipline, mainstreaming, building the basics, and the like, the phrase "life's work" seems foreign. Yet a recent survey of classroom teachers in a large metropolitan area revealed teacher interest in exploring their own *career progression* or *career change* was just as great as their interest in learning teaching techniques (Willie and Kummerow, 1979). Teachers are concerned with a sense of career and life work even if inservice programs are not. We suggest that the development of career profiles and increased opportunities for change in roles over time—consonant with changing aspirations and life goals—is excellent content for inservice education.

Development of One's Sexuality

What we hold to be true about human sexuality is often steeped in myth. One of the big myths is that at some point in our lives we complete development of our sexuality. Many, if not most, of us do in fact struggle with it throughout our entire lives.

Study of sexual behavior is of relatively recent origin. To Freud is

attributed much of the early work. But two sets of prominent works have become staple items for both professionals and lay public: Kinsey and associates' *Sexual Behavior in the Human Male* (1948) and *Sexual Behavior in the Human Female* (1953) and Masters and Johnson's *Human Sexual Response* (1966). Despite the mass of data presented in these works, Bischof (1976) nonetheless cautioned that we really do not know how adults behave sexually in fantasy or fact but rather that we do know the responses of small groups of people who serve as subjects in investigations of sexual behavior.

Cashman* has noted four periods of sexual development: (1) puberty and post-puberty, (2) sexual socialization, (3) middlescence, and (4) old age. The first period, puberty and post-puberty, is the beginning of adulthood. It is characterized by uncertainty—uncertainty about body changes, about thoughts and feelings, and about behavior. The period is frequently described as one of turmoil. The second period, sexual socialization, is one of relative stability simply because the individual is so busy. Participation in activities related to family and to the job occupy much of one's non-sleeping hours. The individual has little chance to worry about sexual role identity in this period. In the period middlescence, which we focus on here, an important adult transition takes place. Perhaps Neugarten's (1968) time-left-to-live becomes so compelling and urgent that problems conceived and developing in earlier periods can no longer be ignored. Whatever the cause, many people believe this to be a very troublesome period with perhaps even more turmoil than that of puberty. Cashman suggested four kinds of behavior which might signal the period as a troubled one: (1) higher incidence of alcohol and other drug abuse; (2) greater frequency of mental illnesses; (3) higher participation in out-of-character activity; and (4) participation in sexual adventures.

For some time now we have acknowledged the unique problems of youth relative to sexuality. Youth—especially those years surrounding puberty—is marked by uncertainty about body changes, thoughts and feelings, and behavior. It may be a time of turmoil as individuals grapple with these concerns. Those who are their

*From a lecture by Professor Paul Cashman to a class in adult development at the University of Minnesota, Fall, 1976.

teachers often take on new meaning for them. Teachers of the same sex serve as models for behavior and teachers of the opposite sex become the focus of crushes. Most teachers are prepared to accept these new roles thrust upon them by young students. They themselves have experienced this stage in development; they have read about it; they have studied it in their psychology classes; and they may have observed it in their own children. It is very public and much of what takes place is acknowledged by teachers as well as other adults simply by a knowing smile or a wink of the eye.

Dramatic changes also occur in later adulthood, although the changes may not be so public. Coping with the signs of aging is especially difficult in a youth-oriented society such as ours. Some women, Kaluger and Kaluger (1974) reported, become especially interested in youth. They imitate their ways of thought and dress. They want to be admired and loved by young men. Others turn to drugs, find "loving" men, or become depressed. Pikunas (1976) stated that prior to menopause, a considerable number of women experience increased sexual preoccupation. He wrote:

> *Many women explore new cross-association, and some enter into sex-related activities in order to "make up for lost time." Erotic excitability and decreased self-control permit vivid symptomatic behavior. Fears about growing old and loss of feminity compound emotional behavior. After menopause, behavior and self-reliance rise and are maintained for a decade.*

Most writers agree that there is not a physiological change in men comparable to that in women. Yet the *psychological* reaction in men is as great as or greater than it is in women. Kaluger and Kaluger (1974) stated that some men have almost neurotic reactions to middle age. These men do not want to be old and, like some women, try to look and act very young. Some, they noted, shed their wives and marry women much younger.

In summary, therapists report that uncertainty and concern are expressed by women during their late thirties and forties and by men during their late forties and early fifties, years in the lives of professionals which should be among the most productive and satisfying. We must conclude that teachers follow the course of other adults. They may have observed problems of others, they undoubtedly have

read about them in the popular press, and they may well experience concerns themselves. We cannot afford to have two sets of people—men and women, youngsters and adults—working so closely together in so important an enterprise as education going through developmental stages about which they often have minimal knowledge. Fortunately, we have adopted sound sex education programs in many of our elementary and secondary schools. We suggest that studies in adult sexuality would be a most beneficial addition to the continuing education of teachers as well.

The Quest for Meaning

The search for meaning, for purpose, is a common activity in our culture yet it varies both in direction and in extent from one person to another. The direction of the search is ordinarily directed toward both the cosmic and the terrestrial. The individual seeks meaning in a divine cosmic scheme and in his particular life. Most individuals appear to find meaning in the cosmic sense and in their particular lives; some find meaning in the cosmic sense but not in the terrestrial sense; some find their lives meaningful but reject the cosmic scheme; and a few find meaning in neither.

The extent to which the person carries on the search may be very limited or very great. Some people appear to find meaning quickly and easily and hold to it throughout their lives; others spend a lifetime on the search and still find no meaning.

Most works on aging characterize old age as a period of introspection about the meaning of one's life. Indeed, Erikson's (1950) eighth stage, integrity versus despair, by its very title seems to demand a search for meaning. Integrity "is the acceptance of one's one and only life cycle as something that had to be and that, by necessity, permitted no substitutions . . . ." Butler (1968) postulated "the universal occurrence in older people of an inner experience or mental process of reviewing one's life." He called this process the life review. Kimmel (1974) suggested, however, that introspection about the meaning of life may not be highly salient immediately before death in old age but instead "may be more salient when death is not at the doorstep (so to speak), and when our interest in life is high—for example in late middle-age when the imminence of death is not upon us . . . ." Support of this position is also found in the studies of

the middle-aged by Neugarten (1968). She wrote: "We are impressed, too, with reflection as a striking characteristic of the mental life of middle-aged persons: the stock-taking, the heightened introspection, and above all, the structuring and restructuring of experience . . . ." Introspection about the meaning of life may also be prominent in early adulthood. In fact, it is quite likely that the search for meaning or purpose is a universal occurrence in adults of all ages.

We do not believe that an inservice program can provide much meaning or purpose for an individual who has found little meaning or purpose in life. We do believe that inservice education can increase job satisfaction and that much of the introspection about the meaning of life centers on the job and its satisfactions.

Job satisfaction has been studied in a variety of ways in a variety of contexts. The basic conditions which contribute to satisfaction are remarkably similar across occupations, geographical areas, and cultural groups. Terminology varies from one study or survey to another but common ingredients in job satisfaction include security, respect and recognition, clarity, autonomy, opportunity, ownership, support, and a sense of efficacy.

These studies suggest content for inservice programs but, perhaps even more importantly, they suggest questions which should be asked about every inservice activity. The following are examples of such questions.

- Do the participants have a sense of *security*? Is the activity offered in their environment? Are the instructors known to them? Do they know the criteria for evaluation?
- What *recognition* will be given to teachers as a result of participation? A new title? Publicity about their participation and achievement? Commendations to the community?
- What measure of *autonomy* do teachers have? Was the activity planned and is it being conducted under shared control? Have teachers been involved in deciding the what, when, where, and why of the activity?
- Is *opportunity* provided for participants to apply in the classroom what is learned in the workshop? As teachers increase their skills, are new opportunities made available?
- Do participants develop a *sense of efficacy*? Do they feel that

they have the power to move toward individual and institutional goals?

- Do the participating teachers receive respect? Are they treated as adult learners?
- Is there *clarity* in the task at hand? Do participants clearly understand the task as well as the purposes behind the task?

Honest answers to questions such as these should lead to the design of improved inservice education which will help stem the growing disenchantment with the teaching role by a great many teachers.

Acceptance of Termination

All through life we deal with termination. People separate; friends move; social groups disband; businesses fail; jobs disappear; careers run their course. Many of these end in pain. Yet termination must be regarded as inevitable, proper, and normal and we come to accept these events. Perhaps these events prepare us for another kind of termination—death.

Fromm (1955) wrote, "man is the only animal who knows he must die." Yet death is a difficult concept for man to confront, let alone grasp. Young adults think of death occasionally but they do not linger on the thought; middle-aged adults encounter death as parents and a few friends die; old adults become greatly concerned to see many friends and associates die and to some the notion of death may become phobic (Kaluger and Kaluger, 1974).

Bischof (1976) reported that prior to the early 1960's interest in and concern about death was a field studied primarily by theologians and philosphers and written about by novelists, poets, and playwrights. In the late 1960's four works treating death as a subject of research were published: Verwoerdt's *Communication with the Fatally Ill* (1966); Hinton's *Dying* (1976); Strauss and Glaser's *Time for Dying* (1968); and Kubler-Ross's *On Death and Dying* (1969). Bischof wrote that these four broke the barrier on death as a subject for research.

Erikson (1950, 1963) briefly touched upon death prior to the early 1960's when he wrote: "Only in him who in some way has taken care of things and people and has adapted himself to the triumphs and disappointments adherent to being, the originator of others or the generator of products and ideas—only in him may gradually ripen

the fruit of . . . [the] seven stages." He stated that integrity is the acceptance of one's one and only life cycle as something that had to be and that allowed no substitutions. Kimmel (1974) wrote: "Thus, in this framework [Erikson's eighth stage], one would look back over one's life and deal with the questions of the meaningfulness of one's life, the intersection of one's life with history, and the degree to which one's life was a worthwhile venture."

According to Erikson, those who do not achieve integrity face despair. Despair allows fear of death. Despair expresses the feeling that "the time is now short, too short for the attempt to start another life and try out alternative roads to integrity." Havighurst (1973) stated that Erikson's eighth developmental task, integrity versus despair, dominates later adulthood, i.e., age 65 and later. Yet Neugarten's (1968) study of *middle-aged people* led her to conclude that the middle-aged restructure life in terms of time-left-to-live rather than time-since-birth. She wrote that not only the reversal in directionality but the awareness that time is finite is a particularly conspicuous feature of middle age. Further, she stated that a frequent theme in the interviews in her study was the recognition that there is "only so much time left." She attributed the following quotation to one of her male subjects: "There is now the realization that death is very real. Those things don't quite penetrate when you're in your twenties and you think that life is all ahead of you. Now you know that death will come to you, too."

One can conjecture that the realization that there is only so much time left to live triggers behavior that the individual would not have engaged in at an earlier age. Some of the behavior is dramatic—divorce, for example—and must ultimately have an effect upon the individual's professional performance.

Death education is increasingly being advanced for inclusion in school and college curricula. We suggest that it likewise be advanced for inclusion in the inservice program.

Summary

Our brief review of life issues is not meant to be exhaustive. The literature in each area is increasing at a rapid rate and those interested in a deeper study of an issue are referred to the bibliography.

We have argued that dimensions of personal concern and development have profound implications for inservice teacher education. Not too long ago, educational psychologists were arguing that the *whole* child must be taken into account in the educational setting. A child, they said, brings his problems, his concerns, with him to school. We suggest that the same may be said of the teacher.

Many writers and researchers have documented the negative effects of schooling. What have been the attempts at treatment? Most responses have dealt with new content, new method, or new variations on the organization. Few have systematically addressed the fundamental problems and concerns of teachers. We have attempted to illustrate that *development* is a much more complex phenomenon than various personal *growth* experiences.

The individuals identified as age theorists are attempting to identify the concerns, problems, and tasks which might be common to most adults. If they succeed—and they are amassing persuasive evidence—then difficult life periods might be predicted. We could then develop better programs to ease teachers through these difficult but normal ages. These programs, among other things, would consist of activities which convey to teachers what is currently known about adult development. Many adults, believing that what they are experiencing is unique or idiosyncratic, live out part of their lives in a kind of quiet desperation. Many might be helped simply by knowing that adulthood is not at all a static thing and that others are also dealing with similar concerns, problems, and tasks. Inservice programs might also serve to help teachers anticipate problem times of life, prepare for these times, and ward off crises.

To the stage theorists the process of teacher education—including inservice teacher education—may be viewed in developmental terms. Some suggest that the outcome of such programs can be conceptualized as promoting growth on the part of teachers. They view teacher education in broader terms than instruction in pedagogical skills. They have concerned themselves with how teachers' thinking about themselves can be stretched so as to produce cognitive-structural changes which may open them to new ways of viewing teaching and interpersonal relationships. They assume that, by altering cognitive structure, one can function at a more open, more

complex, and more abstract level. One has greater behavioral flexibility. The primary aim of the stage theorists is to help others restructure their way of thinking about themselves and the world. A continuing education program guided by stage theory would concentrate more on the processes of cognition (e.g., thinking, knowing, recognizing, generalizing, evaluating) rather than on the content of thought, although the latter is obviously of great import also.

It has not been our intent here to outline a continuing teacher education program. We have tried (1) to demonstrate a need for most teachers to understand better the interaction of physiological, psychological, and sociological aspects in human development and the impact of that interaction upon themselves and the people they serve; (2) to point out that such interaction raises concerns or problems which are likely common to *all* adults including teachers; (3) to identify some of the more salient concerns such as the search for intimacy and the quest for meaning and to examine briefly their implications for what we refer to as inservice teacher education; (4) to note that there are experts in a variety of fields addressing those problems; and (5) to suggest that continuing professional education programs can and must be developed which provide teachers with more than teaching skills.

Six broad areas of adult concerns have been described in this chapter. These areas of concern have direct implications for the design of inservice programs for teachers. It has been suggested that all of us have *reactions to physiological change*. Better understanding of and sensitivity to such change is needed in both the process and the content of inservice teacher education. The on-going *search for intimacy* suggests that teamwork and cooperative problem solving can be productive modes of continuing education. *Interaction with life's work* points to the need for inservice programs to be more concerned with career development, increased status, and opportunities for changes in roles over time. The continuing *development of one's sexuality* in adult life suggests an important area of study for inservice programs that previously had been limited to childhood and adolescence. The *quest for meaning in life* by teachers demands that developers of inservice programs more adequately address needs for personal application, recognition, autonomy, and oppor-

tunity in designing continuing education programs. And finally, the *acceptance of termination* suggests that more attention be given in inservice programs to several basic transitions.

Adult development and adult concerns central to this development have seldom been given attention in designing inservice teacher education in the past. However, as increased study and research have yielded more insights into adult development, their importance in both planning inservice education and in being appropriate content for study in continuing education is increasingly apparent.

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CHAPTER FOUR

Staff Development in Institutions of Higher Education

Elizabeth L. Jalbert

To talk about staff development or personnel development or inservice education is to discuss a process that engages adult learners. Many adults are interested in lifelong learning to assure the intellectual vitality and emotional fulfillment necessary for personal growth. But, as the previous chapter pointed out, adult development to meet life's inevitable role changes requires an approach to learning different from that normally offered to the childhood learner. This is a point to be remembered as avenues for faculty development are examined.

The adult learner is very likely to have had some previous contact with the content area being explored, has perhaps formulated firm opinions related to it, and may have strong preferences as to learning style. Often educational activities must be integrated with family life, career, and citizenship, and convenience of time and place is often essential to this integration. Motivation usually becomes intrinsic, less dependent upon tangible rewards. Of their own volition adults prepare for better jobs, acquire new skills, or pursue avocational interests within or outside of the formal academic system. Those charged with responsibility for personnel development programs need to be aware of the many factors affecting the adult learner's response to opportunities planned or provided.

Often these opportunities occur within the career aspect of adults' lives. Professions have increasingly recognized the need for their members to engage in a continuing educational process. However, discussion of staff development within the teaching profession has usually focused on the elementary and secondary classroom teacher. It was they who needed to "grow," "be kept up to date," or "improved." The term "inservice" was limited to activities for them. Seldom, in the past, were college professors the target of faculty developmental efforts. Though the collegiate atmosphere may have been supportive of various forms of faculty development, many professors and administrators were complacent about the need. Today the situation is very different.

Current emphasis on inservice education or faculty development as it relates to institutions of higher education focuses on two levels of concern: a general one directed toward the improvement of all college faculty members, and a more specific concern directed toward faculties of schools of education because of their special role in the education of inservice teachers. What institution cannot identify within its ranks those who would most benefit from an improvement program but are perhaps most resistant to it? Examples might include the faculty member employed when there was a shortage who now holds a secure, tenured post despite severe personal limitations; the individual who understands the need for change, but is unwilling to make the effort because retirement is on the horizon; the low-key tenured professor whose priorities place family and fun ahead of professional responsibilities; the writer whose self-image allows no consideration of self-improvement; the autocratic bore who will never be acceptable to graduate students, particularly in off-campus settings; the newcomer who has already determined that his or her future advancement is more dependent upon research than excellence in teaching; or the solid citizen who has contributed a great deal in the past, but who now appears to have run out of gas. The list could be expanded.

Ideally, growth and improvement on the part of teachers at all levels should be continuous, but in reality there are many constraints. Constraints in institutions of higher education, as well as the need for inservice work among college faculty, and suggested remedies have been dealt with in detail in many current publications. In addition, a number of professional organizations have cho-

sen inservice development as the theme for national conferences. Some might consider this a fad or an example of climbing on a bandwagon; others would acknowledge it to be a foremost concern of the profession. In either case, inservice education for college faculty is clearly a matter of concern to many.

The chief purpose of this chapter is to underline the fact that among educators use of the term "inservice" should not be limited to activities of classroom teachers but should include college faculty as well. Brief references will be made to some on-going efforts in this area—often focusing on the improvement of instruction—on the part of institutions of higher education. Two more detailed descriptions will be offered which relate specifically to the involvement of institutions of higher education with basic educational institutions in inservice efforts and the implications this holds for faculty development at the college level. As indicated previously, detailed attention to the complex topic of staff development in institutions of higher education has been given elsewhere and covering the topic fully is impossible here. However, a cursory overview of the issues imbedded in the topic may be helpful.

The Why's of Faculty Development

First, why all the attention now to this specific population? Why the emphasis on faculty growth in general? More specifically, why the concern for those faculty members serving in colleges of education and, even more directly, those college of education faculty members who have (or should have) responsibility for inservice activities in schools? Basic reasons can be easily summarized:

- Faculty members are an institution's most valuable resource and they need care and maintenance.
- Decreasing mobility of faculty and decreasing opportunities to meet changing needs with "new blood" increase the demand that faculty not stagnate.
- Institutions cannot afford bored students, particularly when they are well aware that enrollment targets must be met and that students, once enrolled, do not tolerate dissatisfactions quietly.

Better to encourage and maintain a dynamic faculty (and thus a responsive institution) through every means available!

When attention is focused directly on faculty in schools of educa-

tion who, in turn, bear some responsibility for inservice work in schools, additional reasons can be articulated:

- Dedicated college of education faculty members involve themselves in the work of schools—the "real world" of education. They need and want to be able to make viable contributions.
- Declining enrollments at the preservice level both force and permit attention to inservice offerings and the needs of employed teachers. College faculty need to be in tune with those needs.
- An awareness of the power of the organized teaching profession highlights the need for skill in collaboration on the part of college faculty and for flexibility in their approach to the content and delivery of inservice activities.

All colleges require up-to-date faculty, and those faculty need to be informed and motivated by faculty development activities. In regard to schools of education, Petrie (in Walker, 1978, pp. 3 and 4) comments that "there is an urgent need to develop teacher educators who have as much skill in inservice education as they have in preservice education." He stresses that:

> *The market for inservice training of teachers is at least as big as any that we have previously addressed—and probably bigger. However, university faculty members will need to develop new skills in order to deliver instruction in a form and content different from current practices. The challenge to schools of education is to overcome institutional inertia and respond to the forces and the demands of the schools.*

The Who's and How's of Faculty Development

There are many convincing answers to the "why's" for awakened interest in continuous faculty development, but other issues relating to the "who" and "how" of faculty development are not so easily answered. Essentially these questions focus on financial support, problems of motivation and necessary skills among college and university faculty members, and problems of institutional constraints that discourage faculty members. To expand each:

- Financial considerations are everywhere. Assuming that faculty want and need inservice work, whose responsibility is it?

Is it an individual or an instructional responsibility? Even if it is agreed to be mutual, how are costs supported? Travel, visitations, courses, workshops, consultants—all have related costs.

- Faculty vary in their acceptance of the dimensions of need for faculty development. Some resist the implication that they lack necessary skills, or at least need to update them. Some do not recognize new roles needed and the changing demands within each. Others assume the need for change, but feel that new roles and the related skills necessary have not been well defined or are not promoted in their institutional setting.
- Institutional constraints affect action taken as well as faculty motivation. A prime incentive for faculty development in schools of education is the need for service to school personnel. Institutions very in the extent of their commitment to this service role. Unless that is viewed as a high-priority contribution, faculty will not see knowledge of school-related concerns and skill to work with school personnel as critical to career advancement.

Financial limitations will always be with us and solutions will depend upon creative approaches and skills of persuasion; other problems imply the need for identification and training in new skills and attitudes required by college faculty; still others require institutional change in any number of directions, including perception of mission and the related reward system, allocation of resources, and the view of power/jurisdiction and governance related to inservice commitments.

It is in the inservice context that Carey and Marsh (1980) explored university roles. They concluded that "university involvement in inservice education is best seen as a problem of institutional change rather than only as a problem of program or faculty development." They then react to the May-June 1978 issue of the *Journal of Teacher Education*, which addresses the general issue of faculty growth within schools of education, and write (1980, p. 9):

> *None of the contributing authors consider faculty development to be the problem of individual faculty members. Instead, Gideonse (1978) maintains that staff development cannot afford to be viewed as an isolated need or activity. Instead, it must be*

related to budget, faculty review and evaluation, and linked to program review and priority setting within the institution. Gideonse summarizes his perspective on faculty development by arguing, "This all suggests that if staff development (for college personnel) is to be addressed successfully, it will have to become a frame of mind, applied to a variety of ongoing management and governance concerns. It must not be allowed to become an isolated phenomenon standing more or less free and clear of the rest of the business of operating institutions. It is not a concern that can merely be added onto other concerns; it must become thoroughly integrated into the warp and woof of ongoing institutional processes." (p. 2) Mathis (1978) and Bergquist (1978) both argue that faculty development must be nested in the context of redefining institutional missions and developing strategies to achieve these missions. As these writers attest, greater university involvement in the inservice education of public school personnel cannot be achieved through faculty development narrowly construed. While an increase in faculty skills may be a part of a new university role in inservice education, these skills cannot be developed in isolation.

Responses to Faculty Development Needs

In spite of the complexity of the problem, many institutions are responding on various levels to the need for staff development among university faculty. In some situations foundation support or small grants have supported the process. The University of Massachusetts has Kellogg funding, Stanford University receives support from the Danforth Foundation, and Glassboro State College and Western Kentucky University use Teacher Corps project funds to support university faculty development. USOE Deans' Grants have been used in bilingual education and special education to target faculty growth in selected areas. The State University of New York supports competitive grants for the improvement of undergraduate instruction, and the University of Tennessee at Knoxville has provided grants to faculty.

In some institutions a planned, on-going program is in place. The University of Toledo reports that its staff development story "is an exercise in planned change." Both San Diego State and State Univer-

sity College, Oneonta, New York, describe a variety of developmental programs. These include workshops for faculty on topics such as competency-based education, multicultural education, and PL 94-142. Some involve consultants, while many are led by faculty. Goal-setting retreats, course and program planning sessions, and faculty assessment are some of the activities conducted locally. Visitation to other programs and sabbatical leaves are other developmental activities.

The University of Massachusetts developed the Clinic for the Improvement of University Teaching and Stanford initiated the Center for Teaching and Learning. The first supports faculty development of teaching competence within the university, while the second has assumed a regional mission in improving teaching. At Massachusetts, staff from the clinic work individually with faculty members to help identify problems and correct them in a manner that is reinforcing to the teacher. At Stanford, workshops are offered on interdisciplinary teaching, its intellectual and pedagogical issues. Kansas State University has organized a Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development. Instructors identify their own objectives for a particular course, have students assess their progress toward these goals, and follow up with teaching improvement activities. Virginia Commonwealth University has a Teaching Laboratory where faculty members can obtain descriptive feedback about their teaching from trained observers.

California State University at Northridge has established an Institute for the Advancement of Teaching and Learning. Faculty members selected by the president are assigned quarter time to the institute and spend a half day a week in on-going discussions on topics of interest. Syracuse University has a Center for Instructional Development where the staff, working with departments or teams, selects an instructional improvement project, creates an "ideal" and then a "real" design, and plans for the implementation and evaluation of the project. Glassboro State College has employed microteaching and other self-evaluative, non-judgmental devices in staff development. Texas Tech University has provided state leadership in a process of clinical supervision for university faculty. Small teams of faculty observe each other's teaching, provide feedback, and develop plans for improvement.

The University of Cincinnati organized a Faculty Resource Center and the State University College, Oneonta, developed the Instructional Resources Center, both designed to support the faculty development process. Several, including the universities of Massachusetts, Cincinnati, and Tennessee, have publications which are available to other institutions.

Both grant support and institutional programs provide direct staff development opportunities. A third means of doing so might be categorized as "indirect." It is the spin-off that occurs for college faculty when they are actively involved in public school inservice activities. It is difficult to obtain descriptions of how this occurs. Glassboro State refers to its attempt "to improve inservice education for school personnel" and its "collaborative effort in program development." Western Michigan University emphasizes the Education Support Team that works with the client school or system. In any case, when college personnel are actively involved in the public school setting, the benefits no doubt flow in both directions. Hopefully, college staff make a valued contribution, but in addition the activity often becomes one of renewal for them as well.

The following pages contain two commentaries on staff development as related to delivery of inservice education. One was written by Jean Winsand, Director of Inservice/Continuing Education at the University of Pittsburgh. Dr. Winsand has projected a paradigm for examining the roles related to inservice education of school personnel. In her model, Winsand delineates theory development, theory translation, and change facilitation. University faculty assume different role expectations as a result of each of these functions in inservice education. The second commentary was contributed by Theresa Lorio, Assistant Director of the Detroit Center for Professional Growth and Development. She suggests basic steps to be followed in the development of a college staff development program.

The Role of Higher Education in Inservice Development

by **Jean Winsand**

For the past several years, as the need for preservice education has been drastically reduced, institutions of higher education have

turned to the inservicing of classroom teachers. This interest has been late and, to be honest, often self-serving. This rather sudden and often ill-considered interest in the "field" and inservice teachers has not served to lend greater credibility to many of higher education's efforts to become relevant to the schools.

Despite the multitudinous problems and challenges facing higher education relative to the inservice process, I would suggest that there are excellent examples of institutions which have established exemplary interaction programs with basic education and are making excellent contributions to the inservicing of schools. In each instance where such an effort has succeeded, a careful theoretical base for operation has been established and worked through. It is the purpose of the following to examine a rationale for the involvement of higher education with basic educational institutions in inservice efforts.

The Rationale

In the document *Higher Education's Role in Inservice Education*, Denemark (1977) made two points which need to be considered in discussing the role of higher education in inservice education. They included the concern that: (1) the college-based teacher educator needs to be viewed as a practitioner also; (2) teacher education may, in fact, not be theoretical enough; (3) field-based experience is meaningful insofar as it is linked with theoretical or foundational studies. These statements clearly suggest that the role of higher education does indeed have a major theoretical responsibility connected with it. In the same document, Edelfelt commented that schools of education need to give attention to self-learning and need to consider new types of personnel for inservice education who can function as field agents or as school-college coordinators. Both of these comments can be considered as guides to higher education's role in inservice. Recent research in educational opinion has identified some concepts relative to role identification and responsibility which seem to provide support for the development of a role expectancy framework for institutions of higher education. Current concepts of role function as a means for identification of role expectation suggest that, if an institution of higher education can identify those role functions which it can most effectively perform, certain

Figure 2
Role Responsibility Chart

Areas of Inservice*	Higher Education Responsibility/Competency	Basic Education Responsibility/Competency	Individual Responsibility
1. Theory *Examples*: Piaget, Kohlberg, Learning Theory, etc.	Development of theory. Translation of theory to practitioner. *Resources*: time, energy, support services.	Practical application of theory. Reality testing. *Resources*: supervisory personnel, administrative support, classroom teachers and students for reality check.	Study and review of theoretical bases for classroom practice. *Resource*: practical experience.
2. Philosophy *Examples*: behavior modification, open environment, back to the basics.	Philosophical challenge. *Resources*: knowledge base, research base.	Support for testing of personal and instructional philosophies. *Resources*: schools goals and philosophies, community access.	Adjust philosophy through critical analysis.
3. Basic skills (teacher) *Examples*: reading, writing, speaking, teaching.	Preservice programs. Inservice accountability models (follow-up on preservice product).	Identification source for weaknesses in skills. Institutional support (supervision, etc.).	Self-assessment of needs and weaknesses.
4. Competency growth	Identification of necessary teacher competencies. Preservice, inservice skills in competency-based education relative to certification, etc.	Support systems for change to CBE and necessary inservice cooperative training programs.	Self-assessment.
5. Change in system	Prediction of change conceptualization. Evaluation of change processes. *Note*: Belief systems change as a result of knowledge acquisition. Sentiments change as result of tension management. Both legitimate roles of IHE.	Identification of system change. Identification of needed teacher competencies occasioned by change. Support services (supervisory, administrative).	Self-assessment of competency for change.
6. Values identification and growth	Freedom to challenge values and create cognitive dissonance relative to beliefs. Work with individuals and systems to examine, respond to, and challenge values.	Support for changing individual values. Reality-based tests of values of individual and institutions. Work with IHE and individuals to examine, respond to, and challenge values.	Self-assessment.

*Areas of Inservice identified from Pennsylvania Department of Education document defining graduate-level inservice credits.

role expectation can then be clarified. Given this identification of role expectations, it becomes possible to develop a conceptualization of the necessary training of higher education personnel to fill role expectations. Drummond (1978) identified sixteen emerging roles for college-based teacher educators. Several of these roles would be appropriate to the higher education institution functions in inservice.

What is still needed in cooperative inservice efforts between school district and college is the activity of locally assessing the necessary role functions and capabilities of each participating institution before the development of individual role descriptions. A very necessary activity involves a cooperative identification of the kinds of inservice activity necessary in a given locality. With this identification, a careful determination can be made of the various role functions necessary to carry out the activity. Once these functions are identified, it should be possible to specify which agencies or institutions are most prepared to respond to the functional needs. This is the role expectation task. In the accompanying role responsibility chart (Figure 2) this type of activity has been carried out.

If one examines the functions of inservice, the first function is theoretical development and the communication of pedagogical theory. It is clearly evident that higher education, because of its structures allowing for research and academic study for the pedagogical function, is competent and therefore should be responsible for the development of much educational theory and, furthermore, for the translation of educational theory to the practicioner. The resources which higher education has available for this function include time for study, support services such as libraries and computer assistance, and the fact that the reward system at institutions of higher education is clearly based on this type of activity as an expected role.

If one examines the responsibility or competency of basic education in the same area, one would determine that the application of the theory, or what we might call reality testing, is a more appropriate responsibility based upon the functions of the basic education group. Here the resources include supervisory and administrative personnel and the availability of classroom situations to provide a reality check function for theory development.

Even the individual teacher and/or educator has some responsibility relative to theory development. It would be the responsibility of the individual to continuously update and review theoretical knowledges for use in his or her classroom practice. The problem of sorting out organizational versus individual responsibilities for professional growth is something that ought to be carefully considered in this process. This necessitates a very clear definition of professional growth goals and functions by both the individual and the institution. It is this author's experience that rarely do individual professional growth goals and institutional growth changes coincide very effectively. This problem probably relates to the development levels of inservice at this time. There very obviously needs to be personal, individual goal-setting in which the individual identifies professional growth goals which are important to himself or herself at any particular time in his or her career. At the same time, educational institutions change goals. Curriculum and instructional processes change as educational theory advances. Much more effort needs to be expended in determining how individual professional growth goals can coincide with and be fitted into the institutional growth goals so that both groups can be satisfied.

A model for consideration relative to this is Spaulding's (1974) Life-Long Learning Model. It could be highly useful in discussion of distinction between organizational and individual professional growth goals. This particular model could be considered in any discussion of the role responsibilities of organizations for it distinctly suggests that certain organizations have greater ability to respond to different levels of professional learning goals.

Developmental Processes

Because of my firm commitment to process, both as a learning activity and as a planning activity, I have structured this section as a series of questions with discussion. The first question to be considered by any organization entering into this type of role definition process ought to be:

1) *What are the goals of the particular inservice education that is planned?* In other words, what are the necessary inservice needs of the local school district; what changes are necessary; what are the necessary conditions for the changes and how can these conditions

best be met? This establishes the institutional need. Once this type of school planning process has been accomplished, individual needs relative to the institutional changes must be identified.

2) What are the necessary inservice processes and functions to fulfill the roles and needs of the various clients? Here, consideration must be given to both institutional and individual growth and change processes.

3) What units are best equipped to develop or provide the necessary processes and functions for this training to occur? The development of a role responsibility chart, an example of which is included here as Figure 2, could facilitate participating groups' consideration of this question.

Consideration of these three questions would result in the answer to the next question.

4) What are the role functions of the institution of higher education in providing inservice education? The answer may or may not suggest a role for higher education in any particular inservicing project. If the theoretical constructs of the proposed project are included, one could assume a role for higher education. It would be legitimate to suggest that the institution of higher education might, in fact, determine that there are only a few role functions and responsibilities which it would legitimately wish to serve and thereby limit its inservicing activities to those types of role functions. The question concerns the appropriate role functions of the institution of higher education in providing inservice education. Some suggestions, of course, are theory development, theory translation, change facilitation. All of these are legitimate possibilities.

5) What role expectations become the responsibility of the institution of higher education as a result of accepting role functions in inservice education? Given that the institution may identify, for instance, that it would concentrate on theory development, then it is obvious that one of the role expectations would be that of researcher. If theory translation is the process that is chosen, then the responsibility of the higher education institution would be to provide people in the role of teachers, workshop leaders, consultants, or on-site facilitators. If the determination is that the institution of higher education wishes to respond as a change facilitator, then the roles would become change agent or change evaluator roles.

The final question concerns the response of higher education given the definition of the role expectations.

6) Given the definitions of role functions determined to this point, which role responsibilities is this particular institution of higher education willing to accept? Once the institution of higher education has determined that there are certain kinds of functions in which it is most competent, and that there are certain kinds of role responsibilities or expectations which it will fulfill, it is necessary to determine the institutional competence to respond to those kinds of questions. Some of the questions that would need to be considered relative to this would be:

Staff availability: Is staff available with the necessary skills, knowledge, and attitudes to fulfill the particular role expectations expected by the client?

Appropriateness: Is this an appropriate activity for this institution of higher education in view of all of the other goals of this particular institution?

Efficiency: Is it in the best interest for this institution of higher education to respond to a particular inservice request in terms of the most efficient use of available resources?

Effectiveness: Could this institution of higher education expect to respond effectively to the client inservice needs so that satisfaction on the part of all persons is reasonably assured?

The basic premise of this commentary is the suggestion that institutions of both higher education and basic education have not made a concerted effort to determine in which areas of inservice education each of the institutions can function most effectively and responsively so that the institutional needs of both sides can be most comfortably and effectively fulfilled. A great deal of planning goes into inservicing and it is not an area that has been neglected in recent years. However, the planning processes tend to diffuse the distinctions between institutions of higher education and those of basic education. One often finds personnel from higher education conducting hands-on, "make and take" workshops and, in fact, occasionally will find administrators and supervisory personnel and some teachers in basic education who are dealing heavily with theoretical concepts. This is not to suggest that this is not a healthy process. In fact, in some ways this would be a highly desirable out-

come. However, it does seem critical that higher education and basic education conduct serious discussions and seminars with each other to determine what are the most effective uses of the facilities of both institutions. These kinds of discussions should not take place in academic situations removed from the marketplace, but should take place wherever and whenever an institution of higher education makes an attempt to respond to a basic education need for inservice teachers. All parties should be involved in this kind of decision-making including the teachers' organizations, as currently seen in the development of the teacher centers. There is a concern that the teacher center concept may, in fact, encounter problems and difficulties very shortly unless it also involves itself in this kind of decision.

It is imperative that the inservicing process become a much more sophisticated, problem-solving process than it has too often been. A problem-solving approach which recognizes and makes efficient use of institutional differences and roles is a critical need in inservice development.

Developing Faculty Development Programs

by **Theresa Lorio**

William Bergquist (1978) maintained that there is need for both change and stabilization. Change, in a call for new curricula, specialized programs, rescheduling, funding patterns, attitudes, skills, and knowledge. Stabilization, in terms of a reflection on the institution's primary mission. What is that mission? Do faculty recognize and ascribe to it? If institutions wish to bring about constructive change and stabilization, there must be a clear sense of mission with mutually agreed-upon goals. We must be quick to recognize that elementary, secondary, and post-secondary institutions share similar problems: low faculty mobility, tenured staff who have met all the educational requirements for continuing certification, and an apparent need for faculty renewal.

Are we ready for the challenge and change that is upon us? Institutions of higher education have generally responded to the need for faculty development through singular and individualized means. A listing of existing college faculty development programs would

include sabbatical leaves, conference attendance, and self-improvement contracts, as well as other job-embedded and personal development models.

How can we begin to respond to the obvious need for change? What approaches can be successful? What are some of the negatives? If meaningful change is to come about, then the faculty development model most address change at three levels: (1) attitude, (2) process, and (3) structure. Instructional improvement (process) without attention to attitudes concerning values, philosophies, and self-perceptions is doomed to failure. What good is it to concentrate on instructional improvement when the faculty member does not value teaching and does not identify with the teaching model?

Faculty development programs must be consistent with the institution's mission statement and must include a blueprint for responding to the various publics. Let us suppose that the institution's mission statement includes a response to the request for the inservicing of public school personnel and speaks to a transition from a preservice mode to one which includes an inservice training model. The resulting change must include provision for faculty to move together to a new mode of delivery. Staffs must critically assess their strengths and weaknesses and identify faculty members who are best suited and equipped to deal with the myriad of problems evident in today's public schools. The following are some basic steps that must be explored if a meaningful college or university staff development program is to come to fruition:

- Collegial relationships must be established with all educational personnel.
- College or university personnel must often be the learners in these collegial relationships.
- Extensive planning to meet real and apparent needs must be on-going.
- Evaluation of the inservice programs to be delivered must be considered in the planning stage.
- A restructuring of the financial base and a redefinition of the work load, to give adequate credit for field work, must be established.

Let us suppose that the institution in question sees the handwriting on the wall—declining enrollment, loss of funding, etc. The institutional response is to attempt to make the transition from a

strictly preservice training mode to one that includes an inservice model.

1) What kinds of problems may surface?
   a) *Attitudinal:* Is teaching a valued endeavor? Does the institution's staff identify with the teaching model?
   b) *Process:* How can instructional improvement be assured? How do we butt into existing systems of staff development?
   c) *Structure:* How do we provide for funding? Can we work through the problems associated with credit production and in load field work?

We must remember that ideas that are owned by groups are hard to come by and even harder to change.

2) What new skills may be needed for the delivery of inservice training? How do these skills differ from those used in college course work? Some skill areas to be explored might include:
   a) motivating the adult learner;
   b) using the learner as a resource;
   c) interacting with adults who are less than willing to change from the status quo;
   d) developing a trust level related to college services that will dispel the "ivory tower" syndrome;
   e) utilizing validated research in practice;
   f) planning cooperatively and collaboratively;
   g) inservicer as learner.

These learning principles must be acknowledged and accepted:
   a) Adult learners have a need to be self-directed.
   b) Learning is more likely to occur in pleasant, unforced settings.
   c) Learning is more successful if it is problem centered.
   d) Adults can be taught to master various techniques and skills, over time, if they are exposed to a consistent rotation of theory and practical application (Hilda Taba).

3) What problems may stem from the need to assess strengths of the college faculty in terms of new and needed skills?
   a) Assessment of strengths may be viewed as an encroachment on academic freedom.
   b) Faculty development program evaluation may become synonymous with individual faculty member evaluation.
   c) Can faculty attitudes be changed? What about the colleague

who does not value teaching and does not identify with the teaching model?

d) How does one fund a faculty development program to ensure that identified needs are met?

4) What are some key considerations that must be included in a plan for faculty development?

a) A mission statement must be developed.
b) Objectives and goals must be defined and mutually agreed upon.
c) Key personnel, with power to institute the program, must own the planned program.
d) Adequate funding must be provided.
e) Adequate time to plan for and to implement the program must be provided.
f) Procedures used must realistically lead to identified goals.
g) The plan for implementation must include on-going evaluation.
h) Commitment must be garnered from the top and all along the line.
i) Human, physical, and fiscal resources must be adquate and consistent with the proposed outcomes.

5) How do we move college faculty through stages of awareness, readiness, and commitment? Faculty discussions about the nature of teaching, and the realities of entrenchment, are one way to aid college faculty in becoming aware of the need for faculty development programs. These discussions should lead to a redefinition of the institution's mission statement and to a readiness to explore avenues that will result in mission attainment. Comprehensive planning must make use of maximum faculty interaction in order to develop a viable course of action. The goals, objectives, and proposed outcomes must be consistent with the institution's mission statement. Commitment will be garnered if faculty has defined specific needs and the process by which these needs are met.

6) Do we recognize that planning to plan and action planning are not the same? Planning for action may be systematic and must take cognizance of a rational use of human, physical, and fiscal resources. A realistic time line and provision for evaluation and program revision must be included. As an aid to developing an action plan for

problem resolution, let us consider some basic techniques of interpersonal influence. We begin with an analysis of the target:

a) Who are the most powerful people capable of instituting change?
b) Where are you, the change agent, in relation to this power base?
c) Groups have established norms, standards, and procedures. What are they?
d) Groups tend to reduce discrepancy and confusion by doing the following: (1) changing the person(s) trying to influence the change; (2) changing themselves to comply with the proposed change; or (3) rejecting the person(s) attempting change.

The following are steps in the basic process for instituting change:

a) Identify goals—What do you wish to accomplish?
b) Identify the existing situation—What is the status quo? How does it relate to the proposed change?
c) Diagnose sources of and susceptibility to power.
d) Identify blocking factors—What and/or who stands in the way of the proposed change?
e) Decide what to do. Develop a plan of action.
f) Generate alternative strategies and tactics. Develops plans B, C, and D.
g) Select the best alternative and carefully plan each step.
h) Get feedback all along the way. Evaluate and redesign the plan of action as a result of feedback.

It is essential to develop ownership for the proposed change by aiding the group in terms of:

- *awareness*—that a problem exists,
- *readiness*—to plan for a change through assessment of need, and
- *commitment*—to the implementation of a viable plan.

Influencing change is obviously not an instantaneous process; it may take weeks, months, or years depending upon the discrepancy between the assessed need and the proposed outcome.

7) What are some of the possible "causes of failure in academic planning," as defined by H. R. Kells (1977)?

a) lack of consensus on the goals for planning;

b) mismatch between planning procedure(s) chosen and the goals for the process;
c) lack of an adequate basis for planning; the confidence to project effectively (self study and institutional research) is missing;
d) human relations failures: (1) asking people to do things they are not equipped to do; (2) poor group leadership; (3) poor communication processes in the group; (4) not identifying the key resource people; (5) not making people aware of another's strengths which results in lack of trust and lack of risk-taking; (6) not using intensive work assignements with a clear beginning and an end in sight; (7) not rewarding participants appropriately; and (8) not letting them understand the context for their work.

8) Poor process management:
a) data not available at the time when it can be used;
b) poor timing of the process;
c) inadequate staff assistance;
d) inadequate funding;
e) thinking that production of a plan is planning;
f) inadequate participation, therefore little psychological "buying in";
g) poor commitment from the top; and
h) unclear task assignment, poor charge to the subgroups.

Having viewed the state of the scene, key issues in assessing needs, problems involved in planning, some influencing techniques, and even possible pitfalls and failures, can we entertain the existence of hope? Robert Bush (1979) says "Yes!" He reminds us that there are good training materials available. We know how to use them and when to use them, *but* we rarely if ever put research and available training materials into practice.

As we look at the realities of the 1970s and 1980s, we must surely begin to recognize that there are new fields to be cultivated and new seeds to be sown. We must take stock of our strengths and utilize them. We must be cognizant of our needs and satisfy them. We must be ready to enter into collegial relationships and become both teacher and learner. The opportunities and options that inservice education holds for institutions of higher education are limitless.

Conclusion

This chapter provides only a glimpse of the current scene in college staff development. Hopefully, that glimpse will arouse on-going interest. The references following provide excellent suggestions for initiating, designing, implementing, and maintaining staff development programs particularly for those persons engaged in the preparation of teachers, and the processes are described in far more detail than can be reported here. We are reminded to consider the mission of the institution; the on-campus and off-campus influences and climate; and the need to gather information about needs, expectations, the wealth of materials currently available, and possible sources of stable funding. Specific procedures will vary widely as reflected in the brief program descriptions provided. Regardless of the final scheme designed, institutions are urged to explore their own potential for faculty development. The problems are complex, but the benefits are great.

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PART III

Using Organizational Structure Effectively

Institutions such as schools and colleges are organized in ways that are constantly changing; so too are their governance structures, their formal and informal communication systems, and their management relationships. Schools may be organized for open-concept buildings, team teaching, accommodative education, nursery/kindergarten experiences, middle schools, or any other of the myriad systems that can be utilized. The average teacher/student ratio and the ratio in special circumstances are organizational in nature. The number and role-description of administrative and quasi-administrative personnel, nature of line and staff personnel, and the size of the school district relate to organizational shifts.

The educational consortium, composed of representatives from a number of constituencies, is a major new organizational thrust affecting staff development. Fermented by the federal teacher center legislation, the evolving relationships among teachers, school administrators, and university personnel provide a new approach to staff development. In the complexities of inservice program implementation strategies, such consortia are important stimulators to progress, but their growth and development require careful nourishing. Several questions may be posed which probe the role of

organization/governance/communication structures and their relation to inservice education:

- *What institutions or individuals should be included in governance of the staff development program?*
- *Do program modifications require a new structure? Different management teams?*
- *Is the decision-making process evident?*
- *What is the nature and structure of the management team?*
- *Are management team roles, responsibilities, lines of authority and communication clear?*
- *Have resource needs been thought through and resources allocated for installations?*
- *Are there any physical facilities that need modification?*
- *Are records open? Available to whom, under what conditions?*
- *Is there a receptive feedback system designed to be sensitive enough to detect problems early?*
- *Is communication open among various institutions involved in staff development?*

CHAPTER FIVE

Staff Development through Collaboration in a Rural Setting

Robert L. Stevenson, Jack Neel, Robert A Cobb, and Teresa O'Shea

The continuing professional development of all personnel in a school district charged with the responsibility of designing and implementing an instructional program for all children is essential if educators are to meet the challenge of education today. New strategies, new methods, and new technologies must be developed. Teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents must continually look for better ways to establish a climate that will enable students to accomplish learning objectives more quickly and with a greater degree of confidence.

The responsibility for guiding the professional growth of all educators, regardless of job assignments, should be a shared responsibility between the individual, the school district, and the teacher education institutions. Unless these three entities work cooperatively to enhance the growth of each professional, the chances of maintaining a high level of performance by school personnel and, consequently, increased achievement by students is, indeed, slim. These statements represent the philosophy of the Professional Development Center Network of Southcentral Kentucky.

Twenty-three rural school districts in Southcentral Kentucky and

the College of Education of Western Kentucky University have recognized the desirability of a collaborative effort to enhance the growth of professional personnel. These organizations have entered into a consortium, the Professional Development Center Network, with the following goals:

1) to systematically assess the problems and concerns of each professional in the consortium;
2) to establish a staff development training system which will be responsive to the professional needs of each professional in the consortium;
3) to assist in identifying the programmatic needs of each school district in the consortium; and
4) to design and deliver training activities to meet the programmatic needs of each district in the consortium.

Organization and Governance

The Professional Development Center Network (Figure 3) includes 23 public school districts, several parochial schools, and the Laboratory School and College of Education of Western Kentucky University. There are 163 schools, 3,281 teachers, and 66,889 students in the organizations within the Network. The Network spans an area of approximately 7,200 square miles.

To facilitate effective educational programs relating to the specific personnel needs of the organizations in the consortium, the Network is organized into four Professional Development Centers (Figure 4). Each Center serves from four to nine school districts and seeks the active collaboration of the participating organizations in utilizing a wide range of educational resources to meet specific needs. Staff development and training activities are cooperatively designed and field based.

The Network is governed by a commission which is composed of a member from each of the participating organizations. The commission member must be a person within the organization represented who can make policy decisions and allocate available resources. The commission is the policy-making body of the Network and allocates resources to the Centers for the implementation of staff development and training activities. The commission functions as a collaborative decision-making body.

Each Center in the Network has an advisory council comprised of instructional representatives from each organization serviced by the Center. It is this body which gives direction to the activities of the Center. The advisory council makes recommendations to the commission regarding staff development activities, but it does not make policy or allocate resources.

Figure 3
Professional Development Center Network

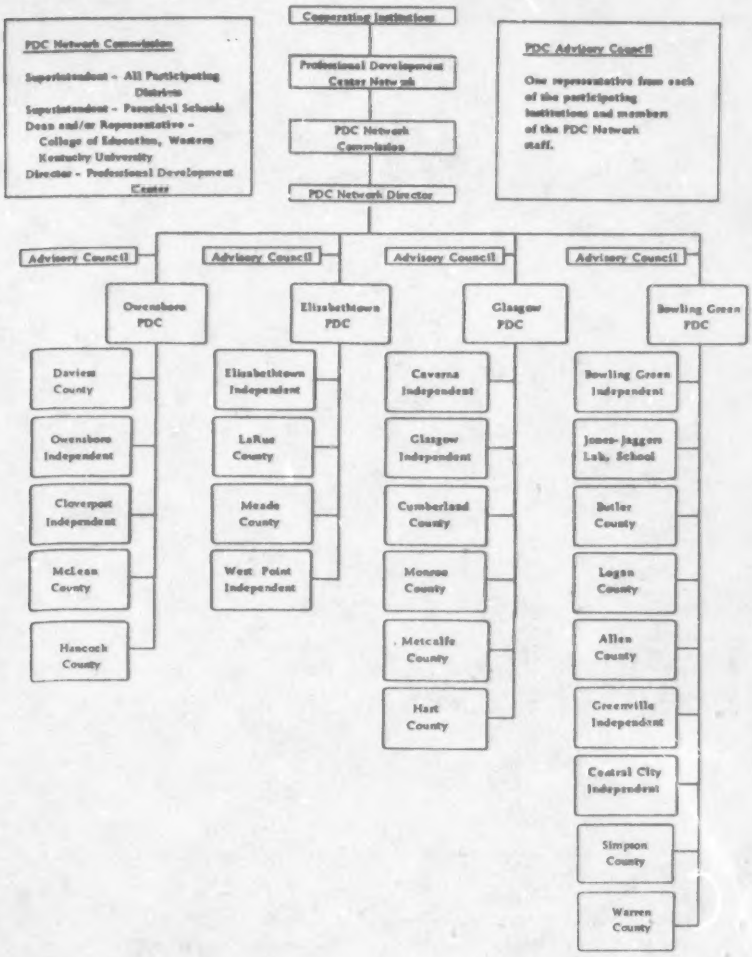
Legend:

1 — Bowling Green PDC (Location of PDC Network Office and Western Kentucky University)
2 — Glasgow PDC
3 — Owensboro PDC
4 — Elizabethtown PDC

The purpose of the Center is to:

1) assist local organizations in identifying staff development and training experiences appropriate to the professional needs of individual staff members;

Figure 4
Administrative Organization of the Professional Development Center Network



2) identify and secure resources to assist in the design and delivery of activities appropriate to the educational development of individual staff members;
3) encourage optimal utilization of the resources of the participating organizations for the provision of training and educational development; and
4) provide information which may be used by the participating organizations in assessing their present education profession's programs (preservice and inservice), improving those programs, and developing new programs.

Process of Needs Assessment

In an effort to provide staff development activities which address identified needs, the Professional Development Center Network conducts an annual needs assessment within each member school district. The assessment instrument for this effort is cooperatively developed by the PDC Network staff, the PCD advisory councils, and the local school district inservice committees.

The first step in the development of the needs assessment instrument is the formation of an item pool. The item pool is generated by administering a preliminary inservice survey (Figure 5) to the professional staff of each participating school district in the Network. Responses to the survey are then summarized, with the most common needs being placed on the needs assessment instrument (Figure 6).

Each item on the needs assessment instrument measures both the knowledge level and the concern level of the respondent. The knowledge level assesses the perceived expertise each respondent feels at the time of the survey. The concern dimension measures the perceived need for a staff development activity in the area of the specific item.

An important part of the needs assessment instrument is the demographic section. With the collection of basic demographics, it is possible to ask questions of the data on a local school or school district basis as well as more detailed informational questions, such as the basic staff development needs of primary teachers as compared to secondary teachers.

Once the needs assessment instrument is developed, it is distri-

Figure 5
Preliminary Inservice Survey, 1980

Type of School (*please check*): Elementary_____ Middle_____ Secondary_____

Please rank your inservice needs by giving specific titles of workshops you would like to have in your school district.

Workshop Descriptions:

1. Awareness—Theory presented with limited practice.
2. Skill Development—Practice on skills related to theory.
3. Classroom Implementation—Application of skills in classroom planning and presentation.
4. Follow-up—Sharing session on classroom experiences.
5. Sequential workshops including 1-4 above.

		Workshop Types (*You may check one or more type workshops in each category.*)				
Rank	Inservice Needs	Awareness 1	Skill Development 2	Classroom Implementation 3	Follow-up 4	Sequence of 1-4 5
0	(*Example: This teacher wants all four workshops on this topic.*) Utilizing Metrics in the Teaching of Social Studies at the Middle School					X
1						
2						
3						
4						

Please indicate in the space below the preferred times, days, and semesters for workshop presentations. Please include summer semester if this is appropriate.

buted to each school district through the PDC advisory council members. When the instruments are completed, the advisory council members collect them and return them to the PDC staff. The data are then entered into the computer for processing and analysis.

Figure 6
Professional Development Center Network Needs Assessment, 1979/80

One of our major goals is to continually assess and respond to the needs and concerns of those we seek to serve. Therefore, identifying network needs and concerns is a basic determinant in workshop planning and implementation.

Please complete the following informational sheet before completing the inventory. Thank you for your cooperation in this very important task.

1. District in which employed: _____
2. School where employed: _____
3. Age: 20–29_____ 30–39_____ 40–49_____ 50–59_____ 60–69_____
4. Sex: Male_____ Female_____
5. Present level of professional preparation
   Baccalaureate/Rank III_____ Masters/Rank II_____ Rank I_____
6. Years of teaching experience:_____
7. Years in present school or position:_____
8. Circle the number of the title which best describes your present position.
   1 Elementary Teacher
   2 Jr. High/Middle School Teacher
   3 High School Teacher
   4 Elementary Counselor
   5 Jr. High/Middle School Counselor
   6 High School Counselor
   7 Elementary Principal
   8 Jr. High/Middle School Principal
   9 High School Principal
   0 Central Office Staff
9. If you are a teacher, circle the grade level(s) of the students you are presently teaching.
   K 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
10. If you are a teacher, circle the number of the one subject area which best represents your major teaching responsibility.
    1 All subjects (Elem.)
    2 Language Arts
    3 Reading
    4 Mathematics
    5 Science
    6 Social Studies
    7 Librarian
    8 Physical Education
    9 Special Education
    10 Foreign Language
    11 Art
    12 Music
    13 Vocational Education (Agriculture, Business, Home Economics, Industrial or Distributive Education)
    14 Other (specify) _____ _____

Figure 6 (continued)

Please complete the following inventory by circling the number which best represents your present feelings concerning the given topics.

Example:

	Knowledge (I Know)					Concern (Workshop Needed)				
	None	Low	Avg.	Abv. Avg.	High	None	Low	Avg.	Abv. Avg.	High
	0	1	(2)	3	4	0	(1)	2	3	4
Aerospace Education										

KNOWLEDGE AND CONCERN INVENTORY (PDCN, 1979)

	Knowledge (I Know)					Concern (Workshop Needed)				
	None	Low	Avg.	Abv. Avg.	High	None	Low	Avg.	Abv. Avg.	High
A. Curriculum Update:	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
1. Alcohol/Drug Abuse Ed.	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
2. Art Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
3. Career/Vocational Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
4. Business Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
5. Character/Moral Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
6. Citizenship Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
7. Consumers' Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
8. Early Childhood Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
9. Energy Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
10. English Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
11. Environmental Educatic	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
12. Exceptional Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
13. Foreign Language Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
14. Gifted/Creative Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
15. Far Eastern Ed. Studies	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
16. Latin American Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
17. Health Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
18. Industrial Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
19. Nutrition Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
20. Mathematics Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
21. Metric Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
22. Multicultural Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
23. Music Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
24. Physical Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
25. Reading Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
26. Science Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
27. Social Studies Education	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
28. Other (Name) _____	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
_____										
_____										
B. Curriculum Development:										
1. Developing Reasoning Skills in Science	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4

Figure 6, (continued)

	Knowledge (I Know)					Concern (Workshop Needed)				
	None 0	Low 1	Avg. 2	Abv. Avg. 3	High 4	None 0	Low 1	Avg. 2	Abv. Avg. 3	High 4
2. Developing Classroom Materials	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
3. Developing Individual Ed. Plans (IEP)	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
4. Developing Scope and Sequence Charts	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
5. Developing Educational Television Curricula	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
6. Other (Name) _____	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
C. Alternative Teaching Stragegies										
1. Utilizing Newspapers in the Classroom	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
2. Learning Centers	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
3. Mainstreaming	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
4. Mastery Learning	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
5. Models of Teaching	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
6. Motivation Strategies	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
7. Individual Instruction	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
D. Management Techniques										
1. Behavioral Management	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
2. Classroom/Discipline Management	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
3. Management by Objectives	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
4. Situational Leadership Management	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
5. Safety Management in the Classroom	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
6. School Law	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
7. Counseling Parents and Students	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
8. Other (Name) _____	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
E. Evaluation										
1. The Kentucky Educational Improvement Act	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
2. Administering and Interpreting the CTBS	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
3. Administering Diagnostic Tests	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
4. Developing Local Educational Improvement Plans	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
5. Other (Name) _____	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4

Selection and Design of Staff Development Activities

A computerized report for each district is prepared which summarizes local results of the needs assessment instrument. This report includes a stratified rank ordering of needs expressed by elementary and secondary teachers, counselors, and administrators. Advisory council members, meeting with local inservice committees, review these data and determine the staff development needs on a local and regional basis. Recommendations from these meetings are presented to the PDC Network for inclusion as staff development topics to be developed.

Once districts have reviewed their needs assessment data and recommended topics for staff development, the PDC Network staff begins designing and developing specific activities which will meet these individual recommendations. The design of staff development activities incorporates five fundamental principles to insure continued involvement at the district level and to maximize the utilization of resources:

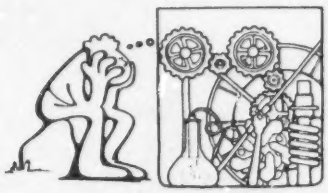
1) Activities must be field based.
2) A development team is formed consisting of individuals proficient in the topic area who represent both higher education and the practicing profession.
3) The development team must agree to deliver the activities to local districts.
4) The design must include activities at four levels of development:
   a) awareness;
   b) skill development;
   c) implementation; and
   d) refinement.
5) Training activities must directly involve participants.

Concluding the selection and design of staff development activities, the PDC staff develops a schedule of staff development topics for the entire Network (Figure 7). This schedule is then disseminated throughout the Network where teachers, counselors, and administrators make their selections and complete a computerized registration card. The registration card (Figure 8) facilitates the

timely registration of participants and provides information helpful to the leader for tailoring and individualizing the staff development activities to specific needs. Information collected on the registration card includes the grade and subject matter taught by each participant, the school district from which employed, and the ratings of knowledge and concern for the staff development topic.

Figure 7
Schedule for a Typical Staff Development Topic

MOTIVATION STRATEGIES
Workshop No. 12



This awareness workshop will suggest effective techniques for motivating children in the classroom. Participants will explore and gain knowledge of techniques for both group and individual processes.

Thurs., Sept. 13	4:00-6:30 P.M.	48—Butler County H.S. Morgantown, KY
Tues., Sept. 18	4:00-6:30 P.M.	51—Lewisburg School Lewisburg, KY
Thurs., Sept. 27	4:00-6:30 P.M.	52—Franklin-Simpson H.S. Franklin, KY
Tues., Oct. 2	3:30-6:00 P.M.	43—Hart County H.S. Munfordville, KY
Mon., Oct. 8	4:00-6:30 P.M. (EST)	58—Meade Co. Middle School Brandenburg, KY
Thurs., Oct. 11	4:00-6:30 P.M.	47—Bowling Green H.S. Bowling Green, KY
Tues., Oct. 16	4:00-6:30 P.M.	53—Warren Central H.S. Bowling Green, KY
Mon., Oct. 22	4:00-6:30 P.M. (EST)	56—[illegible] H.S. [illegible], KY
Thurs., Nov. 15	3:30-6:00 P.M.	61—[illegible] County H.S. Hawesville, KY

Staff Development

The Professional Development Center Network offers the opportunity for professionals at all levels to become involved in staff development at the design and delivery level. Persons performing this role must be sure that the information they are sharing is the most valid and reliable available. Because of this, designing and delivering staff development activities is probably the best form of staff development.

The Professional Development Center Network offers leaders the opportunity to upgrade themselves in their areas of concern. Funds are made available to allow leaders to attend workshops, purchase training materials, and field test the activities designed. The opportunity to collaborate with professionals at different levels—theory or practice—is also an added benefit.

Evaluation of Staff Development Activities

At the conclusion of each staff development activity, participants complete a six-point evaluation instrument (Figure 9) which focuses upon objectives common to all staff development programs. Objectives measured by the evaluation include:

1) participant knowledge and concern for the topic prior to attending the staff development activity;

Figure 8
Workshop Registration Card

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT CENTER NETWORK
WORKSHOP REGISTRATION 1979-1980

	WORKSHOP TITLE	WORKSHOP NUMBER	WORKSHOP LOCATION NO.	CONCERN RATING	KNOWLEDGE RATING
(1)	Gifted/Creative Ed	15	44	4	2
(2)	Alcohol/Drug Abuse	13	46	3	1
(3)	Developing Classroom Materials	18	48	2	3
(4)	School Law	11	47	3	1
(5)	Motivation Strategies	12	53	4	2
(6)					

YOUR DISTRICT Bowling Green Independ. GRADE 4 SUBJECT 1

Figure 9
Workshop Evaluation Card

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT CENTER NETWORK
WORKSHOP EVALUATION 1979-1980

MY RATING PRIOR TO WKRSHP	DEGREE THE TOPIC WAS	EXTENT THE ACTIVITIES WERE	EXTENT THE OBJECTIVES	EXTENT WRKSHP INVOL	MY RATING AFTER WRKSHP
KNOW-CONC	RELV-USEFUL	RELV-NEW	CLEAR-MET	ME	KNOW-CONC
5 HI 5	5 HI 5	5 HI 5	5 HI 5	HI 5	5 HI 5
4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4	4 4
3 3	3 3	3 3	3 3	3	3 3
2 2	2 2	2 2	2 2	2	2 2
1 1	1 1	1 1	1 1	1	1 1

WOULD YOU LIKE TO INCREASE YOUR SKILLS ON THIS TOPIC? (YES) (NO)

GRADE.... SUBJECT TAUGHT..... SCHOOL DISTRICT.....

2) the degree to which the topic presented was relevant and useful to the participants;
3) the degree to which activities were relevant and new for participants;
4) the extent to which participants perceived objectives of the session to be clear and to be met;
5) the extent to which the activity involved participants; and
6) participant knowledge of and concern about the topic after the session.

Evaluation data of each activity are summarized and a conference is held with the workshop leader. Strengths and weaknesses are discussed, and the activity is refined based upon the data.

Funding of Network

Funds for the operation of the Professional Development Center Network are obtained primarily from school district memberships. Membership fees are established by the commission and assessed on an equitable basis by formula. The formula currently requires each district to pay $1 for each student in average daily membership, but not more than a total of $3,000. Since staff development funds are limited, the commission felt that no district, regardless of its size, should be required to pay a disproportionate share of the cost of the operation. Most districts in the Network are of similar size, however, and do not pay the maximum amount.

Local school districts determine their own sources of funds. Most districts use part of their Title IV-C project money to join the consortium.

The university contributes its share of the operational cost by providing space, office equipment, telephone, and custodial services. The director of the Professional Development Center Network is a university staff member with full-time responsibility to the Network.

The fiscal agent for the Network is a member of the staff of a public school district. This arrangement simplifies the operation of the Network and enables it to submit proposals for outside funding.

Related Activities

A collaborative relationship between higher education and public schools enables the Professional Development Center Network to become involved in all areas relating to education.

Research is a continuing concern and one which must be addressed. The Professional Development Center Network instituted a program entitled "Research and Evaluation for Public Schools." This program initiates action research at the local district level. In operation only two years, the program has completed 40 studies.

The Professional Development Center Network also assists in the preparation of joint proposals for submission to outside agencies for funding. This effort enables everyone involved with the Network to stay on the cutting edge of education.

CHAPTER SIX

Staff Development for a Large School District

Mira Baptiste and **H. Prentice Baptiste, Jr.**

With some 18,000 staff members assigned to approximately 200 sites, the Houston (Texas) Independent School District is a complicated organization. Its staff development activities involve the kinds of attention and planning necessary not only to serve a large population, but also to accommodate the special needs attendant upon urban sprawl over a large geographical area. Examples will be drawn from the plans and programs which collectively comprise staff development within the Houston system to illustrate successful strategies devised to meet the multifaceted needs of individuals, organizations, and the total urban community.

"Staff development," as used in this chapter, will always imply a dual focus—on the individual and on the organization—in determining the needs to be addressed and the services to be delivered. The term will describe the aiding, supporting, encouraging, and continuation of learning opportunities and experiences which afford the staff members of a school district with a planned program for the improvement of the quality of instruction and educational services to the children of the community. Closely related terms in common usage—professional development, continuing education, on-job training, professional growth, and inservice education—may have specialized meanings and may be used for purposes of inclusion and exclusion, as well as to show related concepts that are similar.

Within the past two years the concept of staff development has undergone a complete change in Houston. Still responsive to the needs of teachers, adminstrators, and support personnel, staff development has had to focus increasingly on future public need in rapidly changing educational circumstances. The Board of Education and the General Superintendent began to anticipate what lay ahead, and the necessary preparations for continual professional growth were woven as a common thread into a comprehensive plan for staff support. Parameters for development of the program were economic and political pressures from legislative mandates, programs sponsored by state agencies, the school district's own initiative, the desire for survival in the 80's, the quest for control of salaries, and the program development efforts of professional organizations.

Inservice Education

By August 1 of each year the Houston Independent School District must file with the Texas State Board of Education inservice plans for each of its six administrative areas. This means that the Area Deputy Superintendent and his or her staff in each of those areas must begin planning early each spring and submit a plan no later than July 1. The formality of the procedure arises from State Board of Education Policy 64.02 mandating eight days of inservice education during each school year and detailing requirements for the use of those days:*

> *Not more than three days of the required eight days may be used as preparation days. The school district may, at its discretion, count as part of the days allowed for inservice training those instructional workshops planned by or sponsored by regional education service centers, the Texas Education Agency, or institutions of higher education. A minimun of one day, or its equivalent, of inservice special education training must be provided for regular and special educators serving handicapped students. Not more than one day of professional association*

A Guide to Better Inservice Education in Texas (Austin, Texas: Texas Education Agency, Department of Professional Development and Instructional Services, GE 9 891 01, May 1979).

meetings may be counted as an inservice day. None of the inservice days may be used to conduct the business of professional associations.

Participants shall include professional and paraprofessional personnel, excepting clerical aides.

The normal school calendar contains 183 days, 175 days of instruction for students plus 8 days of required inservice training, in addition to which local school districts may require further days of instruction/inservice.

Before continuing contract teachers and other staff report for duty, teachers new to the school district receive two days of specialized inservice training. All personnel, both new and continuing, are engaged in preparation activities for three days before the school year begins. Planning these five days requires the coordinated efforts of building principals, department heads, professional teacher organizations, area support staff, superintendents, and other central office personnel. The complexity of this undertaking—including that of designating inservice sites within a city the size of Houston—can be illustrated by the fact that there is not a building within the school district which will even accommodate all the food-service personnel for a central inservice.

The preparatory activities at the beginning of the school year occupy three of the mandated inservice training days for continuing staff. The remaining five days of inservice are spaced throughout the school year, with two of those days being spent in preparatory activites at the assigned sites. A program providing interaction between parents, students, teachers, and the school, called Operation Fail-Safe, occupies another two or three days.

Coordination of the planning and reporting the planning to the state agency is the charge of the Staff Development Department. Considerable autonomy is retained by each of the six administrative areas within the Houston Independent School District, and personnel of the central office act with comparable autonomy in developing plans to mesh with the larger plan. The need for inservice training beyond the required eight days is the responsibility of the six administrative instructional area superintendents, based upon needs assessment. Throughout the school year instructional specialists provide a continuing program to serve the needs of new teachers,

and federally funded programs often provide monies for inservice training of specialized groups of instructors. For example, the Emergency School Assistance Act program provides inservice in multicultural education for faculties of ESAA schools. Other inservice opportunities are provided by the regional education service center, the county department of education, other local agencies, local universities, various state and federal agencies, and peer-level programs from professional organizations.

Delivering inservice education to regular and special education teachers at different levels—i.e., elementary, secondary—has required special technology, notably the utilization of closed circuit cable television. Needs assessment surveys are taken and computerized before programs are planned so that needs common to all teachers in the six administrative areas can be beamed broadly, and programs on special needs can be aired to more limited groups. Viewing sessions of one hour are planned, with the second half hour being devoted to live responses to questions received during broadcasting. Several locations are equipped for viewing with closed circuit cable television, school sites are equipped with public broadcast television, and video-recorded programs are shown to special populations.

Travel distance for administrative personnel can be reduced by conducting informational meetings through television hook-up when vision is important and through radio when it is not. The General Superintendent can speak to all administrative personnel assembled at ten sites which receive closed circuit cable television, and a telephone system permits dialogue between the sites and the presenters during live broadcasts. Radio broadcasts are less expensive for factual programs, are receivable at each site, and can employ the same two-way communication as the television broadcasts.

Student Teaching

As previously mentioned, preservice preparation of new teachers is separate from inservice education but is one of the connecting threads to it. The Staff Development Department handles placement of about 600 student teachers from approximately seventeen universities at the 200 sites within the Houston system. The variety of instructional programs offered attracts many out-of-state preservice and inservice teachers.

Preservice activities include student teaching, internships, observations, field-based activities, etc. The student teaching program is a fund-generated program linked to the teacher centers established at the local universities. Inservice credit for the programs must be provided to the supervising teachers or school-based teacher educators in accordance with state legislation.

The Staff Stabilization Plan

Studies leading to a unique feature of the Houston Independent School District, the Staff Stablilization Plan, were begun during the 1978/79 school year to determine the factors which affected the perceptions and attitudes of administrators and teachers in the Houston system and, subsequently, the amount of teacher turnover in the schools. Survey evidence indicated that, among the factors affecting job satisfaction and the well-being of teachers, campus-level leadership, student discipline, security, and supplies were high on the list of priorities.

As a result of this survey and in recognition of the importance of a well-supported faculty to a good educational program, the Board of Education formulated a Staff Stabilization Plan which was formally implemented in October of 1979. This plan was in part a response to the above-average percentage of staff turnover to which the peculiar economy of the Houston metropolitan area contributed. Evidence of the problem was the fact that mid-year of 1979/80 found Houston's school district still lacking 300 teachers. All district administrators were to share the responsibility for taking affirmative steps to enhance stablilization of staff.

The overall objectives of the plan, as stated in Article Five (Employee Policies) of the Board Policies and Procedures 580.000, were fourfold:

1) to raise the quality of instruction and educational services to the children of the community;
2) to raise the standards of the district as a whole;
3) to aid the individual to grow and improve;
4) to establish an atmosphere of job satisfaction and well being among the district's employees.

Critical factors identified by the district and addressed in the plan can be categorized into the following major elements:

1) Leadership (building, area, district).—All district adminis-

trators shared in the responsibility for improving campus-level administration and a number of plans were designed for use at the individual campuses. One of the plans designed to provide a personal support system to new teachers was to appoint Teacher Consultant Facilitators in Title I and ESAA schools.

2) Security.—In order to provide teachers with a secure environment in which to teach, plans were evolved to provide each campus with a staff/student assault investigation team, building security inservice and check list, vandalism reimbursement, and security specialists.
3) Student discipline.—A Code of Student Conduct provided teachers with the right to deal with student discipline problems as they arose in the classroom.
4) Supplies.—Four plans were devised to insure the availability of instructional supplies: a basic supply list for each teacher, a central supply store, a mobile supply van, and the development of plans to meet the specific supply needs of teachers in each building.

The comprehensiveness of the Staff Stablization Plan in providing staff support paved the way for the development of the special plans which will be discussed in the following pages.

The Second Mile Plan

Designed to recognize the commitment of classroom teachers to the instruction of children, the Second Mile Plan recognized six special dimensions of this commitment and established a point system and special stipends for those teachers satisfying the conditions of each dimension. The six dimensions for which stipends have been paid are:

1) high priority location;
2) critical staff shortage;
3) extended instructional service;
4) outstanding teacher attendance;
5) professional growth; and
6) outstanding educational progress by students.

The stipend offered for achieving each of the dimensions (under an

established point system) is $100, and a teacher may be eligible for and receive more than one stipend. A total of $5 million has been budgeted for payment of stipends to teachers in the first two years of the plan's operation. A teacher must apply in writing to his or her principal, and certification of compliance with baseline requirements by Personnel Services will activate payment of the stipend.

The first of the dimensions, high priority location, refers to schools with concentrations of educationally disadvantaged students. For each year of service at such a school, a teacher is eligible for a stipend. Critical instructional areas in the Houston system have been defined as secondary science (7-12), secondary mathematics (7-12), bilingual (K-12), and special education (K-12). Teachers assigned to these areas are eligible for stipends under the plan. Teachers qualifying under the third dimension of the plan are those who conduct curriculum-related instructional programs for students after regular school hours, up to a maximum of 50 hours. The stipend for teacher attendance is payment in exchange for accumulative leave days. No absence by the teacher during the school year will earn that teacher $500 in exchange for five unused personal leave days.

The fifth of the dimensions for award of stipends is successful completion of prescribed college coursework, with achievement of grade B or higher. One prescription is for coursework in curriculum and instuction appropriate to the teacher's assignment area; another is for return to graduate school to acquire certification in areas where critical teacher shortages exist. The final dimension of stipend award applies to teachers whose students achieve an academic gain, as measured by standardized tests, greater than the median for similar schools in the district.

Additional support services for the district's personnel available under this plan include: a staff support team to assist personnel experiencing situations which adversely affect their professional performance; staff financial counseling for personal financial problems; inservice on strategies for coping with stress; a transportation network to provide staff with transportation to and from assigned duty stations; a committee for grievances and complaints regarding professional practices; expanded legal services for employees; and service recognition ceremonies.

Teacher Facilitators

In recognition that the highest rate of professional turnover occurs among new teachers, the Houston Staff Development Department was charged with the responsibility of developing a support system for new instructional personnel. Two funding sources were used to establish a network of teacher consultant facilitators: Title 1 for the elementary component, and the Emergency School Assistance Act (ESSA) for secondary schools.

Teacher facilitators work with new teachers on the campus level and are accessible on a daily basis to address matters pertaining to professional growth and in-school relations and communication. Either as single individuals or in teams of two or three, teacher facilitators serve one or two campuses with clusters of fifteen or more teachers who enter a mutually agreeable working arrangement each school year. Activities to increase instructional effectiveness focus on such things as collaborative planning, multicultural education, and varying management styles. Supervision of these peer-level teacher facilitators and reporting their activities on a monthly basis is the responsibility of the Executive Director of Staff Development.

Implementation of the plan for teacher facilitators began in the 1979/80 school year with the appointment of 14 facilitators at the elementary level and 14 others at the secondary level. Teachers participating in the programs at 30 schools have overwhelmingly indicated their satisfaction with the services in the form of feedback questionnaires returned on a regular basis by the 450 teachers surveyed.

Professional Growth—Degree Programs

The concern of the Houston Independent School District with future needs has been mentioned previously, and this concern has obviously been stimulated by the burgeoning economic growth of the area and the consequent population explosion. Needs assessments conducted internally within the past five years have indicated that shortages of bilingual administrators, reading specialists, nurse educators, secondary mathematics teachers, bilingual counselors,

instructional aides, secondary science teachers, and bilingual teachers would occur within the district. Approximately 25 cooperative arrangements were undertaken with three local universities to provide coursework for HISD personnel in the identified areas. Most of the plans provided for a Master's degree program with certification in the needed areas.

One university provides training for bilingual administrators and reading specialists. Participating HISD personnel receive tuition and books on a reimbursement basis from the district. Each program consists of at least 36 credit hours and the participating teacher is certified in the designated area upon completion of the program.

Another university set up a Master's program for secondary mathematics teachers, nurse educators, and bilingual teachers, with the district paying for tuition and books of participants on a reimbursement basis. Bilingual teachers are also certified after completion of 100-hour institutes.

A third university provides a bilingual counselor certification degree program on a reimbursement basis, and the training of instructional aides is accomplished at a community college through two programs: one a career lattice leading to an associate degree, and the other a clock-hour program for increased skills.

Each semester approximately 25 professional personnel enrolled in Master's degree programs at each of the three universities, and 60 to 70 aides enrolled at the community college. Participating employees make commitments to remain in the program until completion and to remain with the district for two years after completion. Within the last five years an estimated 300 teachers have received certification/Master's degrees from these programs, and some 600 aides have been enrolled in one of the two programs, with several aides continuing their training to graduation.

Under the Staff Stabilization Plan teachers are paid a direct stipend for completion of each six hours of college courses that are directly related to their assignments or that are in preparation for certification in one of the areas of critical staff shortage. The district pays no stipend for courses in general educational administration, counseling, and guidance, but the salary schedule for Bachelor's and Master's degree levels is incentive for continued professional preparation.

Administrative Internship Program

In order to select and train a cadre of individuals qualified for consideration for principalships, the Houston Independent School District created the Administrative Internship/Renewal and Management Skills Updating Program. Department heads, in cooperation with the Staff Development Department, set up competency modules for various areas of administrative skill. Training of personnel in the various competency areas involves active participation of candidates in the management of the school under the supervision of the building principal and area superintendent.

All assistant principals assigned after August of 1979 serve a year and a half of internship. Successful completion of the internship program qualifies the individual for consideration for a principalship. The program also accommodates potential administrative candidates. Those not serving as assistant principals who see principalship as a career goal are identified through recommendations and interviews and are permitted to work toward administrative competencies while remaining in their presently assigned positions.

The program for the 1979/80 school year identifies 99 interns, including the assistant principals assigned in August. Department heads within the school district have developed 50 training modules divided into five categories: community-school relations, staff personnel development, pupil personnel development, educational program development, and business and building management. The instructor for each module is a practicing administrator (department head) who implements activities according to an established time line and evaluates the progress of participating interns. At established check points the progress of the interns is reviewed by an Internship Review Team comprised of the General Superintendent, the Superintendent for Area Administration, and the Superintendent for Instruction and Support Services. Maintenance support for the intern program is provided by the Staff Development Department, which also assists the Associate Superintendent in the implementation of each cycle.

Conclusion

Fifty years ago staff development was a matter of individual motivation. Teachers interested in gaining certification, increasing

their salary schedules, or getting out of their classrooms to other positions took university courses. This process of self-improvement was peculiar to this country and to the teaching profession within this country.

The largest school district in Texas has moved far to the right of the practice of fifty years ago. Programs and plans of HISD reflect a growth approach based on the assumption that no one person can ever master all the facets of the complex activity known as teaching and that many routes and choices must be provided for individuals of differing talents. This growth approach contrasts strikingly with the defect point of view, which begins by diagnosing weakness, programs to correct that weakness through change, and in doing so de-emphasizes the rationality of individual choice.

A staff development program which provides a workable system, allows for a wide range of individuality among staff members, increases rather than decreases the options available, and assists the staff member to clarify personal perceptions of self, school, and society has been conceptualized and implemented by the Houston Independent School District for its staff members. At the apex of the program is cooperative relationship, bolstered by realistic commitments for follow-up, support, evaluation, and maintenance.

PART IV

Planning and Developing Programs

The third area which can be employed in changing schools is programmatic in nature. Students study curricula composed of various combinations of the traditional 3 R's and other subjects. The balance among disciplines shifts with sociological and political pressures. During times of national emergency, American history and patriotic themes are more strongly woven into the fabric of schooling. The achievement goes down, reading and mathematics are stressed. Drugs are discovered in the high school and drug education is introduced into the secondary school curriculum. With new programs comes the need for staff development.

Inservice itself is composed of substance. It can include areas as diverse as teaching skills development, dealing with teacher stress, aesthetic education, and Chicombop. Which of these is included in options (indeed, if options even exist), and the relationship among them become elements of staff development programs. Some questions of concern related to inservice programs include these:

- *Are program requirements and components known (written? available?)?*
- *Are program materials readily available and easily obtained? Are procedures for obtaining resources or using equipment known?*
- *Is there a process for evaluating the "fit" of program elements?*
- *Do instructors and program personnel know how their contribution is part of the overall program?*
- *Is there a program evaluation system?*

- *By what process are program elements and precedures revised?*
- *Who assesses competency achievement and at what points in the staff development program? Who is accountable for quality control?*

CHAPTER SEVEN

Assessing Needs and Prioritizing Goals

Linda Rubin and **John H. Hansen**

Needs assessment is a process for recognizing the differences between conditions as they are and as they should be. Even though needs assessment is the first critical step in identifying problems to be addressed during inservice training, there is no one "correct" method to achieve it. If the process is to be successful, it must be closely bound to the immediate needs of a specific locality, a specific institution or group of institutions, and specific individuals—both students and teachers.

The ultimate goal of needs assessment is to identify training goals which can be used to bring about changes beneficial to the education of children. As such, needs assessment identifies the differences between the information a teacher has to teach successfully and what additional information he or she needs to be more successful in a given area.

American education is currently in a stage of rapid change as response to the needs of a rapidly changing society. The educational goal of the immediate past was to assimilate as many young people as possible into the culture of middle class society. That goal is changing slowly from conformity to recognition of cultural differences among students so that individual needs can be identified and individual abilities can be cultivated to tap the full potential of the

student. Inservice training specific to local conditions is necessary if teachers are to be successful in this attempt.

Even though needs assessment must be site specific and the process must accommodate the whole spectrum of local conditions, it consists of three basic steps: development of goal statements, prioritization of identified goals, and selection of specific goals for achievement. A variety of models for identifying and prioritizing goals are available for adaptation. Three of them will be discussed in the following pages.

Identification of needs can take several forms depending upon the target group and the degree of responsibility the program developer is willing to assume. One group of processes requires direct teacher involvement in the identification of the needs (Freedman, Huckaby, and James, 1975). The major premise of this approach is that ownership of a program which teachers consider relevant is the best assurance of involving the participating teachers in the program's successful outcome. Another approach (OCUTE) assumes that those outside the system to be improved are best able to study and observe true issues from an unbiased position. It calls upon experts from the field and from university settings to identify gaps at the root of the surface problems and to acquaint the teachers involved in the program with those gaps. In between these two extremes, other programs focus with varying degrees upon involvement of target groups and experts in the effort which all programs have in common, to identify the gaps between "what is" and "what should be" (Kaufman and English, 1979).

After the gaps have been identified, they must be translated into goal statements, desired outcomes (ends) as opposed to methods (means). A goal must be thoroughly understood and explored before any decision is made about how to reach it. Much educational failure can be attributed to incorrect and imperfect definition of goals. When goals are imperfectly identified and confused with the means to attain them, evaluation deteriorates to a simple choice between use or non-use of methods.

Prioritization follows identification of goals. It can be made at several levels, spanning the range from client group decisions to expert decisions. Who will prioritize is only one aspect of this pro-

cess. How the decision-makers will prioritize also deserves careful consideration. A few of the several processes available will be discussed in the following sections of this chapter.

The third stage of the assessment process, selecting goals to attain, is a crucial one requiring consideration of several concepts simultaneously. Practicality, urgency, and availability of resources must all be taken into account when choosing goals for inservice training. Determination of the mode to use will depend upon the specifics of individual sites. Again, several methods for making these decisions will be outlined.

As important as the three steps in the needs assessment process are, the time allotted for them is precious. The more direct the teacher involvement, of course, the greater will be the demands upon the teaching staff. Even reliance upon an outside expert will cut into teachers' time, since no responsible expert will ignore the skills of the teachers involved or the information which can be derived from their perspectives. Most models for needs assessment involve teachers in one or both of the following ways:

- teacher generation of needs statements;
- teacher reactions to needs statements generated by other professionals and/or instructional experts.

Selection of appropriate participants in the process of decision-making is not the only problem to be faced in the development of inservice needs assessment. Cost (in both time and money) will force choices in types of data collected and frequency of collection. The value of the data to be derived must be weighed against resource restrictions. Furthermore, the data derived may vary widely if assessment is done on a district-wide basis. What is urgently needed at one school site in a district may be insignificant at another. To add to the challenge, needs assessments must take future as well as present needs into account. Today's need may become yesterday's problem by the time planning and implementation are completed. Future directions of societal and educational needs must be projected in order to develop programs which are not too soon obsolete.

Potential problems other than those described can be expected by those who try to develop inservice programs responsive to the needs of teachers and school districts. Anticipation of those problems is

facilitated by understanding the characteristics typical of a successful inservice needs assessment model. Experience has indicated the importance of the following:

1) The teacher's input is requested.
2) The relationship between this input and delivery of inservice training is visible.
3) Individual school needs are identified and addressed as well as district-wide needs.
4) Several sources of data are used and a variety of perspectives are solicited.
5) Models are chosen for flexibility and independence of their activities so that decision-makers can decide how much and what types of data should be collected.
6) An attempt is made to predict future needs of the school district and the teachers.

No one model for needs assessment is a panacea. The three presented in the following pages represent varying approaches and different philosophies. Individual circumstances should dictate the process to select for emulation. The selection presented here was derived from the work of a clinic on inservice education sponsored by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education held in Chicago on March 1, 1979. A monograph was derived from summations of the processes described by clinic presenters, and that monograph forms the basis of this chapter.

OCUTE

Located on the campus of the University of Oklahoma, the Oklahoma Consortium for Urban Teacher Education (OCUTE) is governed collaboratively by local school agencies, six colleges and universities, site school representatives, district representatives, community representatives, and the State Department of Education. It was originally established to develop a needs assessment process for an ethnically diverse middle school. OCUTE's major goal is to establish and document those processes which are required for a training project centered on client needs which is field based and collaboratively governed. While the process developed can be utilized on a variety of target groups, the focus of this discussion will be upon inservice teacher education.

The OCUTE program development process has four phases, the first two of which involve several steps. Figure 10 outlines those phases and steps.

Figure 10
The OCUTE Program Development Process

Phase I—Develop proposal
- Step 1—Analyze project environment
- Step 2—Determine possible project goals
- Step 3—Conduct preliminary needs assessment
- Step 4—Select project goals
- Step 5—Write proposal

Phase II—Plan program
- Step 1—Validate needs
- Step 2—Prioritize project goals
- Step 3—Determine program objectives
- Step 4—Design and develop programs

Phase III—Implement program
Phase IV—Assess program

The first step of Phase I is assessment of the project site environment, which includes information regarding philosophies, goal objectives, structures, etc., of all institutions involved (i.e., State D.O.E., local school board, local school site, etc.). Such variables as student, teacher, and administrator perceptions, physical environment, scheduling, and group strategies are considered. This leads to determination of possible project goals from a criterion of attainment possibilities. At the second step decision-makers determine the range of potential (not limited to the possible) points of impact. The preliminary needs assessment of step 3 complements the data developed in step 1 to permit determination of the needs which the selected process will possibly address. Input includes teacher attitudes and competencies, student attitudes and behavior, school district needs, discrepancy evaluations, community needs, administrator/superintendent perceived needs, and/or university needs. From the objective and subjective information which is gathered, the needs of greatest import emerge to delimit the range of potential goals. Goals are not ranked at this time.

Phase II, program planning, begins with an expansion of needs assessement data gathered in Phase I. Expansion is achieved through

the use of a variety of evaluation procedures and instruments (i.e., Minnesota Teachers Attitude Inventory, Cultural Attitude Inventory, Middle School Needs Assessment Questionnaire) and through the use of such process information as team goals or objectives and interpersonal relations. The decision-makers then prioritize the needs and determine possible staff development activities, presenting these activities to potential participants for ranking. Those with the highest overall rankings are prioritized as the second step of this phase and are then translated by the decision-makers into specific, accomplishable, measurable program objectives which will provide direction for design and development of program activities. At this point, the actual development of the training program can be initiated.

Phases III and IV involve implementation of the program and its evaluation or review. The complexity of the evaluation depends upon how specifically the program objectives were described and how measurable they are. Both pre-program and post-program measures are used, involving objective and subjective feedback from participants. This formative evaluation becomes a part of the inservice process.

The OCUTE program involves outside experts as decision-makers, but counts upon potential participants for input through needs assessment and for ranking of the activities prioritized. In this manner, potential participants share responsibility for orientation of an inservice program and their feedback (through pre-tests and post-tests) provides the project planners with the information to revise the training program if this is deemed necessary.

The Illinois Problem Index

The Illinois Problem Index (IPI) is a diverse model which, while structured, offers flexibility according to client group needs and constituency, with client groups ranging from State Department of Education personnel to local site-school personnel. This needs assessment process was developed by the Illinois Office of Education to aid local school districts in identifying problems as they are perceived by various groups, evaluating perceived problems in the context of existing evidence, and assessing the degree of importance of problems in terms of the time and resources which the decision-

makers are willing to allot to each. The process is described in detail in a users' manual.

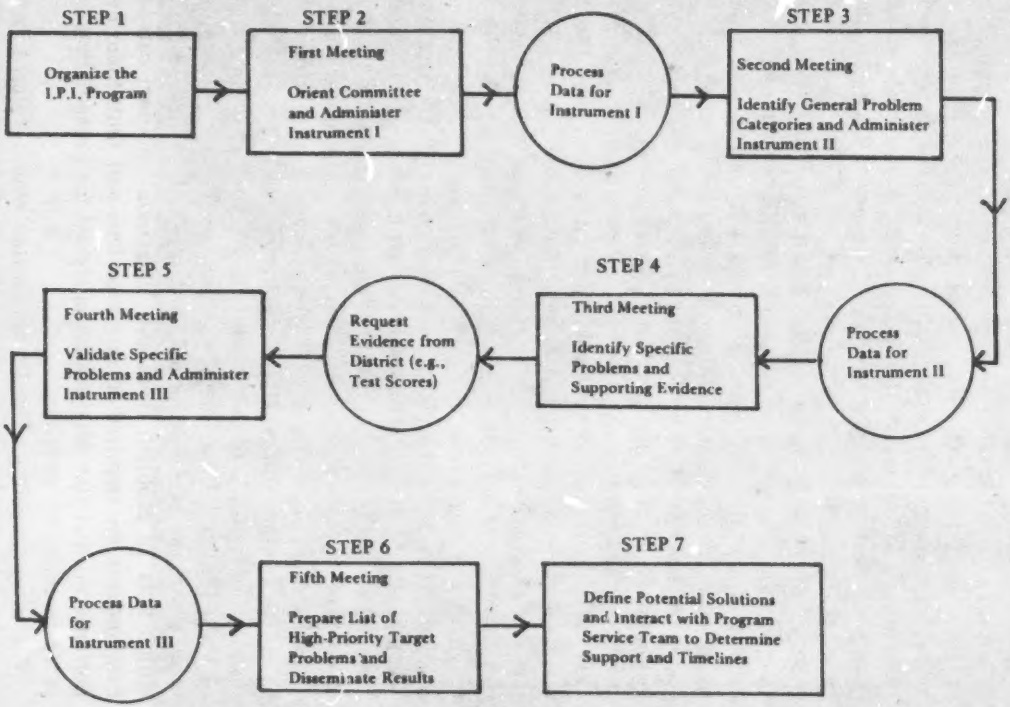
The seven steps of the IPI format are depicted in Figure 11, with the time line from inception to completion of the assessment phase being approximately two months. In this process three survey instruments are administered involving 50 general categories (grouped into 12 problem areas) which are matched with 20 specific problem statements.

Step 1 of the IPI process is organization of personnel to conduct the program, including selection of the IPI committee, the coordinator of activities, the facilitator, and a liaison for interested or involved parties. Organizing the IPI committee from a broad cross section of participants to serve as the main decision-making body for the process is a carefully considered activity in this step. Membership may include parents, teachers, administrators, school board members, test/measurement/evaluation personnel, local business people, etc., with the strategy for selection depending upon the nature and goals of the needs assessment. For example, if the inservice is for teachers at only one school, the committee may be representative only of teachers at that particular school.

Conducting the first meeting of the IPI committee constitutes the second step. At this meeting the IPI director orients the members to the purposes and procedures of the IPI process and introduces them to the assessment instruments. The members themselves decide the "who," "what," and "where's" of the process. They decide who are to be the respondents to the three surveys and they may also be responsible for the actions recommended based upon the problems identified through the process. The first meeting of the committee is usually also the occasion for administration of the first instrument, which lists 12 problem areas and 50 general problem categories. Respondents are required to rate problems and rank them by importance so that the data can be analyzed for presentation at the second committee meeting.

The second meeting of the IPI committee, which is step 3, consists of three activities: providing a summary of responses to Instrument I, negotiating for consensus on high-priority general problem categories, and administration of Instrument II. The total of Instrument II consists of packages of instruments for each of the problem

Figure 11
The IPI Process as Portrayed in the Users' Manual


STEP 1
Organize the I.P.I. Program
STEP 2
First Meeting
Orient Committee and Administer Instrument I
Process Data for Instrument I
STEP 3
Second Meeting
Identify General Problem Categories and Administer Instrument II
Process Data for Instrument II
STEP 4
Third Meeting
Identify Specific Problems and Supporting Evidence
Request Evidence from District (e.g., Test Scores)
STEP 5
Fourth Meeting
Validate Specific Problems and Administer Instrument III
Process Data for Instrument III
STEP 6
Fifth Meeting
Prepare List of High-Priority Target Problems and Disseminate Results
STEP 7
Define Potential Solutions and Interact with Program Service Team to Determine Support and Timelines

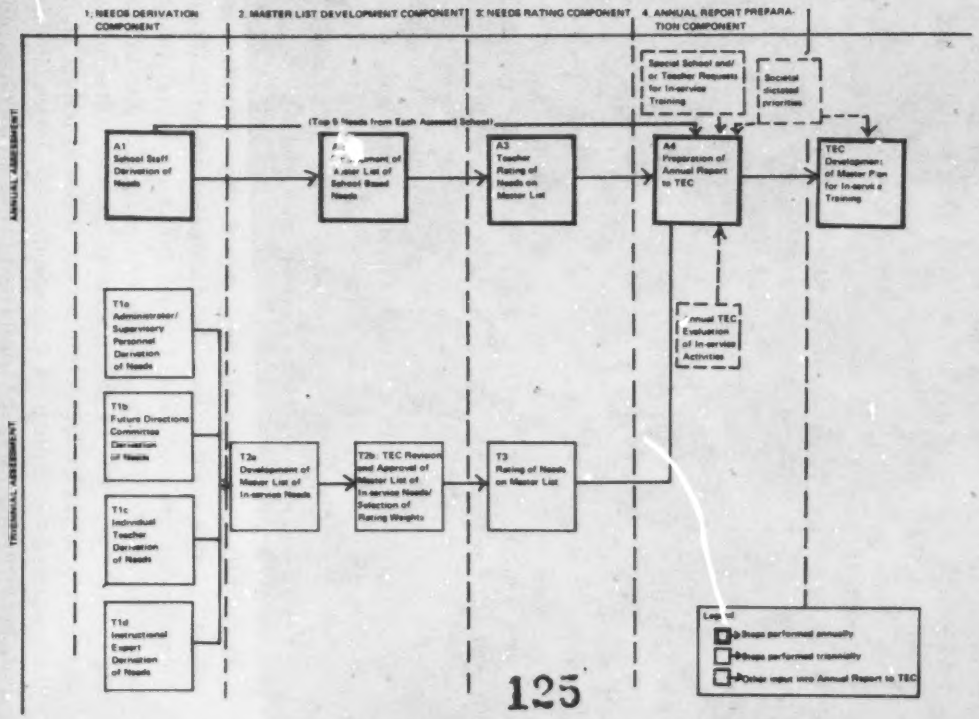
categories. Only those portions of the instrument pertaining to the categories selected are used. The purposes of this instrument are threefold: (1) to indicate if statements reflect problems (yes, no, undecided); (2) if yes, at what grade(s); and (3) to determine what evidence can be cited to support the existence of the problems. The respondents to this questionnaire may or may not be the same as those who responded to Instrument I, and the results generated by this instrument are presented at the third meeting.

At the third meeting of the committee (step 4) the results derived from the use of Instrument II and the validating evidence for these results are discussed. The major goal of this review is restriction of specific problems in each category to those given highest priority so that problems are reduced to a workable number, typically the top 30. Discussion revolves about validation of evidence for priority problems, including decisions about what evidence will be accepted as valid. Evidence can range from test scores to the IPI instruments themselves, depending upon the types of problems. This discussion should result in the setting of decision rules for such evidence.

The fifth step, which is taken at the fourth committee meeting, consists of validation of specific problems, selection of specific validated problems for further analysis, and the administration of Instrument III. The instrument provides data regarding the extent to which resources should be allocated in the solution of particular problems. As with the two previous instruments, the IPI committee may decide that groups other than themselves are better qualified to provide the answers.

At the fifth committee meeting, step 6, three activities are involved: (1) review of the data summarizing Instrument III; (2) negotiation on preparation of a list of target problems, and (3) dissemination of the results to the community and target group(s). In evaluating the data provided by Instrument III, the committee must take care not to overtax limited resources and thereby produce an inefficient, watered-down program. Cohesiveness and interrelatedness of program elements should be considered so that an effective, efficient program can be developed and presented for best effect to the target group(s) and/or the community.

Figure 12
The TEC Needs Assessment Model


1. NEEDS DERIVATION COMPONENT
2. MASTER LIST DEVELOPMENT COMPONENT
3. NEEDS RATING COMPONENT
4. ANNUAL REPORT PREPARATION COMPONENT
ANNUAL ASSESSMENT
TRIENNIAL ASSESSMENT
Special School and/or Teacher Requests for In-service Training
Societal dictated priorities
(Top 5 Needs from Each Assessed School)
A1 School Staff Derivation of Needs
A2 Development of Master List of School Based Needs
A3 Teacher Rating of Needs on Master List
A4 Preparation of Annual Report to TEC
TEC Development of Master Plan for In-service Training
T1a Administrator/ Supervisory Personnel Derivation of Needs
T1b Future Directions Committee Derivation of Needs
T1c Individual Teacher Derivation of Needs
T1d Instructional Expert Derivation of Needs
T2a Development of Master List of In-service Needs
T2b TEC Revision and Approval of Master List of In-service Needs/ Selection of Rating Weights
T3 Rating of Needs on Master List
Annual TEC Evaluation of In-service Activities
Legend
Steps performed annually
Steps performed triennially
Other input into Annual Report to TEC

Needs Assessment Package

Two institutions—Teacher Education Projects, College of Education Florida State University (TEP); and the Research, Evaluation, Development, Experimentation (REDE) Center of the College of Education at Western Michigan University—both use an approach to inservice needs assessment which was initially developed by TEP to facilitate the move toward Teacher Center inservice training programs. The Teacher Education Center (TEC) Needs Assessment Package (Freedman, Huckaby, and James, 1975) articulates this approach through a model and a set of related instruments and procedures for the identification and delivery of inservice needs based on the following assumptions:

1) The classroom teacher's opinion is a primary and respected source of information related to need identification and prioritization.
2) The relationship between teacher requests and delivery of inservice must be direct and visible to the classroom teacher.
3) Inservice needs must be identified and addressed both at the district and at the specific school levels.
4) Inservice needs must be identified by the individuals and groups within the school community which serve distinct functions and represent divergent perspectives and knowledge bases.

The Inservice Needs Assessment Model (Figure 12) is organized into two implementation phases: an annual phase (Figure 13) in which teachers of selected "target" schools derive needs specific to those schools, and a triennial phase (Figure 14) in which needs are derived on a district-wide basis by a variety of "source" groups within the educational community. Activities in both phases are conducted in the first year and every third year thereafter, with the annual phase serving as the yearly update for the three-year cycle. In both phases of model implementation, the process consists of four sequential components: (1) derivation of needs statements; (2) development of a master list of inservice needs; (3) prioritization of needs on the master list; and (4) preparation of an inservice plan for meeting inservice needs.

During the initial and training phases of model implementation, the process of deriving needs requires activities involving:

1) The instructional staff of selected (target) schools use a force field analysis process entitled "Inservice Needs Assessment Process" (INAP), school staff version, to identify concerns and the forces which influence them.
2) The district administrative and supervisory personnel derive needs through the administrator version of the INAP process.
3) Future directions of training needs and district priorities are formulated by a committee using the Future Directions version of the INAP.
4) Representatives of individual teachers derive needs using the Generic Skills Inventory (Carey, 1975).

Figure 13
The TEC Annual Phase Activity Chart

Step	Instruments/Procedures	Personnel
A-1 School Staff derivation of needs	Inservice Needs Assessment Process (INAP) Module, School Version	Representative sample (25%) of teacher populations in selected elementary, middle, and high schools
A-2 Development of Master List of School-Based Needs	Categorization systems used in previous annual Master List development	TEC staff
A-3 Rating of Needs on School-Based Master List	Likert Scale Rating Instrument attached to Master List	Representative sample (25%) of county teacher population
A-4 Preparation of Annual Report to TEC		TEC staff and TEC Advisory Council

5) Instructional experts derive needs from the analysis of standardized test data.

Needs derived from these processes are compiled into a master list of inservice needs and are presented to samples of the same groups originally consulted for prioritization using a Likert scale. Results of the rating are weighted to insure that teachers' ratings have the strongest influence on the final list of prioritized inservice needs.

In 1975, this model and the related instruments were field tested, with the resultant product being called the Teacher Center Needs Assessment Package (NAP). NAP is a procedural guide containing detailed instructions and the materials required to utilize the model. High priority is given to teacher opinion, which is assessed both through generation of and reaction to lists of needs, and to identifi-

Figure 13
(Continued)

	Schedule		
Step	Suggested time of year	Approximate time required	Display
A-1	March/April	7–9 hours	1) List of 10 needs identified by each participating school 2) List of top 5 needs for each school
A-2	March/April	1 week	1) Master List of Inservice Needs organized by categories
A-3	Within one month of completion of step 1-A	2 hours teacher time with 2–3 week period between mailing and return of Likert Rating (with reminders)	1) Likert Scale rating mean for each need on Master List 2) Unweighted mean for each item 3) Equalized mean, which equalizes group influence of elementary, middle, and high school teachers
A-4	Summer	2 months	1) TEC staff recommendations to TEC Advisory Council for inservice training priorities, with supporting data

Figure 14
The TEC Triennial Phase Activity Chart

Step	Instruments/Procedures	Personnel
T-1a Administrator/supervisor personnel derivation of needs	Inservice Needs Assessment Process, Administrative/ Supervisory Version	Samples of school level and county level administrative personnel (approx. 5;%)
T-1b Future Directions Committee derivation of needs	Inservice Needs Assessment Process, Future Directions Version	Samples of teachers, principals, district-level administrators, evaluation or instructional design specialists, and College of Education faculty from FSU and FAMU (approx. 10–15 people)
T-1c Individual teacher derivation of needs	Generic Skills Inventory	25% of teachers from Elementary, middle, and high schools
T-1d Instructional expert Derivation of needs	1) Matrix A—Subject matter identification 2) Matrix B—Subject Matter deficiency 3) Critical Skills Identification Form 4) Critical Skills Prioritization Form	1) Measurement/evaluation expert 2) Instructional experts
T-2a Development of Master service Needs	Lists of generic skills categories utilized in GSI	TEC staff
T-2b TEC Revision and Approval of Master List of Inservice Needs/ Rating Weights	N/A	TEC Advisory Council/TEC staff
T-3 Rating of needs on Master List	Master List of Inservice Needs with Likert Scale Rating Form attached	Samples of populations represented by source groups

Figure 14
(Continued)

Step	Schedule: Suggested time of year	Schedule: Approximate time required	Product
T-1a	November-January	6 hours actual meeting time	Top 20 needs identified by administrative supervisory personnel
T-1b	November-January	6 hours actual meeting time	Top 20 needs identified from a futuristic perspective
T-1c	November-January	1 hour teacher time; 20 min. actual testing time	Top 20 generic skills identified by samples of individual teachers
T-1d	1) Beginning analysis, October 2) Selection of teaching skill, November-January	2 weeks	Top 20 teaching skills related to student skill deficiencies identified through standardized test data analysis
T-2a	March	2 days	List of needs derived by each source group organized by category and presented in parallel form
T-2b	March	3 hours Advisory Council time; one week waiting period between mail-out and meeting time	1) Finalized Master List 2) Selection of weighted value to be placed on ratings of each source group
T-3	April		Likert Scale rating unweighted, weighted, and equalized mean rating for each need on Master List

cation of needs specific to individual schools. Activities involved in derivation of school-specific needs are designed to increase the visibility to participating teachers of the relationship between needs assessment and delivery of related training or services. As a safeguard against a narrow perspective and a waste of valuable skills, the model provides for collection and prioritization of needs from a wide variety of sources. However, the system is organized to allow maxiumum independence and flexibility among activities so that a district can balance the need for maximum data collection against the availability of resources.

The package was constructed when needs assessment was still relatively new in educational literature on the assumption that the responsibility for conducting assessments might be assigned to those with little or no experience with the concepts and the language involved. The simplicity, detail, and completeness of presentation combine into a "cookbook" approach giving step-by-step descriptions of even the simplest procedures involved in assessment activities. Care was taken to preclude the need for inexperienced implementors to design materials or develop processes. For each activity recommended in the model, the package contains the following items:

1) a statement of the purpose of the activity;
2) a list of required materials, including all instruments;
3) a detailed list of functions which must be performed before implementation of the activity;
4) a detailed list of functions that must be performed during the activity;
5) a description of the products expected of the activity;
6) copies of supplemental instructions for those who must implement or analyze the results of the activity (such as facilitators' guides and detailed instructions to computer programmers).

The TEC Needs Assessment Package represents implementation of an approach to inservice needs assessment based on collaborative decision-making of all individuals and groups with significant roles in the school system, emphasizing teachers as the most important sources for needs derivation and prioritization. All activities are geared not only to collect relevant needs assessment data, but also to

build support for and involvement in the resultant inservice program. Failure to involve any individuals or groups necessary to implementation of the inservice program can seriously impair program effectiveness.

Other Models

Even though the three models for assessing needs which have been described represent diverse approaches, they are not all encompassing. A myriad of processes exist, some of which have unique approaches. Eight other processes will be described briefly, with emphasis upon the portions of them which are unique.

The Clinical Inservice Model of the University of Houston Teacher Corps Project incorporates a focus upon individual needs of teachers which are dealt with through inservice on a one-to-one basis between a clinical instructor and a classroom teacher. Staff development plans are developed through monitoring individual needs and a variety of instruments are utilized in the process.

The Multiple Source Assessment Model (Education Development Center, Jefferson County Public Schools, Kentucky) addresses both organizational/programmatic needs of school districts and perceived professional growth needs of individual staff, both teachers and administrators. Needs are defined from a variety of sources through surveys, objectives questionnaries, and a variety of other means.

The Concerns Based Adoption Model (University of Texas at Austin) involves the conceptualization of the ways in which teachers change as they become familiar and involved with innovations in programs, processes, and/or practices in their schools. Needs are identified through interview, open-ended statement surveys, and a questionnaire which relates to stages of concern regarding innovation, so as to enable those responsible for inservice to select or prescribe the types of support teachers require when they engage in a change effort. One goal is to help teachers resolve lower concerns so that they can move to higher levels of concern.

The State University of New York at Oneonta uses a six-phased process aimed not only at involving elementary and secondary school personnel in identifying their needs, but involving them as well in identification of potential delivery systems for meeting those needs on a personalized basis. The six phases of the process are:

1) a creative or divergent phase to identify potential goals which are then clarified and clustered;
2) a convergent phase which produces a rank order for the ends identified in phase one;
3) a second divergent phase to identify possible means to accomplish the prioritized ends;
4) a second convergent phase to assign values or weight performance assessments to the means;
5) a methodology for plotting the relationship between ends and means;
6) interpretation and evaluation of the results of phase five in order to identify a systematic course of action.

The results of the six-phase process used for goal identification and prioritization are then applied in seven phases of activities in the needs assessment process:

1) general inservice questionnaire—for input from various groups and development of an advisory group representing this variety;
2) inservice conference—advisory group;
3) second questionnaire;
4) second conference;
5) implementation of inservice offereings;
6) evaluation;
7) recycling to goals by way of a spiral loop.

The University of South Florida has developed two models. One of them, which is utilized in a 14-county Teacher Education Center community, involves instrumentation and a process of "localizing" the instrument results, techniques for weighing the data, development of a programming format, data interpretation using a computer-based system, reporting of the data, and implementation. The second model—a three-way collaborative effort of a university, a public elementary school, and a community—involves identification of areas of responsibility and development of components by university personnel, formation of committees for each component, development of component objectives, an implementation plan for each objective, development of a format (mission statement) for each objective, an outline of specific tasks for each objective, enabling

activities for each objective, and finally distribution of this information for general feedback and implementation.

The St. Louis University Teacher Corps Project uses a model involving formation of a teacher inservice committee consisting of teachers representing each level within the school (i.e., primary, middle, upper, and special units). This committee is responsible for designing and conducting needs assessment through meetings between individual committee members and each teacher in his or her unit in which a list of areas of concern is established through a questionnaire. This is combined with further input from community members, university personnel, and students for review by a subcommittee which develops a finalized list of concerns. An instrument to measure levels of concern for items in the final list is administered to principals, teachers, aides, and community members. The results are reviewed by all interested parties, goals for inservice are established, and programs are designed to meet the goals.

Atlanta University Teacher Corps utilizes a collaborative process involving representatives from all areas affected by inservice to develop skills to accommodate the educational needs of learners. The process involves teachers in a wide range of data-collection activities (interviews to observation) to insure continuous and dynamic assessment of inservice needs.

A task force concept for needs assessment was used by the University of New Hampshire and the Portsmouth Junior High School Teacher Corps Project. By means of courses offered for graduate credit, local school teachers designed and developed their own needs assessment process. In this manner the locality developed its own "experts" to produce a plan responsive to the specific characteristics and constraints of the school and the staff.

Summary

The models discussed in this chapter reflect a variety of processes currently used throughout the United States as initial steps in developing viable inservice programs reflecting teacher needs. All begin with needs assessment, not in itself a panacea for inservice programs, but essential to the systematic planning which leads to the successful adoption of educational change.

Further information about the needs assessment models discussed in this chapter can be obtained from:

Atlanta University. Burnett Joiner, 233 Chestnut Street SW, Atlanta Georgia 30314; 404/688-7607.

Florida State University. John Hansen, 403 Education Building, Tallahassee, Florida 32306; 904/644-4495.

University of South Florida. John Bullock, College of Education, Room 308, Tampa, Florida 33620; 813/974-2100 X293.

University of Houston. H. Jerome Freiberg, 450 Farish Hall, Houston, Texas 77004; 713/749-3910.

Illinois Office of Education. Larry Werner, 100 North First Street, Springfield, Illinois 62777; 217/782-4823.

Jefferson County Public Schools. James L. Stone, Jr., 3819 Bardstown Road, Louisville, Kentucky 40222; 502/456-3159.

Western Michigan University. Barry James, REDE Center, Kalamazoo, Michigan 49008; 616/383-4068.

University of New Hampshire. Carlton Brown, Teacher Corps Project, Portsmouth Public Schools, Portsmouth, New Hampshire 03801; 603/862-2312.

State University of New York at Oneonta. Robert Gabrys, Oneonta, New York 13820; 607/431-3412.

University of Oklahoma. Tom Gallaher, College of Education, 820 Van Vleet Oval, Room 321, Norman, Oklahoma 73091; 405/325-4047.

St. Louis University. Sara Krull, Teacher Corps, St. Louis, Missouri 63103; 314/535-3300 X469.

University of Texas at Austin. Shirley Hord, EDA 3.114, Austin, Texas 78712; 512/471-3844.

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CHAPTER EIGHT

Conducting a Workshop for Program/Staff Improvement

Elizabeth Dillon-Peterson

The following plan of a one-day workshop for program and staff improvement evolved from one designed to serve the needs of a decentralized school district. Although the original was targeted for the principals of a district's schools, it proved to be flexible enough to adapt for use with a variety of groups. This workshop has been conducted (although never twice in exactly the same manner) with members of educational agencies, with teachers, with curriculum consultants, with superintendents and other administrators, and has even been adapted for college workshops in educational administration.

Participants in this workshop are provided with a skeleton plan to use as they see fit. The hard core of take-home materials are the "worksheets" numbered 1 through 7 in the pages that follow. Other elements (identified by the letters A through G) are lecture guides, discussion notes, and other material which may be developed for either oral or written use. The agenda itself suggests workable time slots for various activities which can be adapted to special needs and special settings.

The purpose of the workshop is to enable participants to:

- identify key components of an effective staff improvement program;

- identify "free and inexpensive" resources available to all school districts;
- examine successful models fitting a variety of situations and people (individual staff members, teams or departments, building-level groups, small and large school districts, consortia);
- plan for the human needs associated with successful staff improvement programming;
- develop a practical staff improvement plan applicable to the local situation.

As a model for others to use in conducting their own workshops, the following guide should be adapted and modified freely. It is not polished for any one level of use because it has been used in so many ways that crystallization would have reduced its flexibility. Before it is used for any major purpose, it should be tried with a small group representative of the target audience to test group reactions so that the program can be modified appropriately to meet audience needs and to accommodate the style of the presenter.

At any workshop participants appreciate take-home materials which reinforce the learning experience. That is why certain materials in the following pages are self-contained worksheets (numbered 1 through 7) which should be executed in writing at the time of workshop attendance to insure that at least some of the inspiration of the moment is preserved. The blank worksheets themselves should be copied for the use of participants in subsequent workshops. **Worksheets 6** and **7** overlap in that the first is for potential workshop conductors and the second is for workshop participants involved in formulating specific program plans.

Typical Workshop Agenda

9:00 Welcome, introductions, preview of the day's objectives through a small group pretest (section **A** in the following pages) presented through discussion or in writing.

9:15 Mini-lecture: What makes a staff improvement program work? Definition (section **B** following).

Recognizing the need, accepting the challenge, fixing responsibility; providing for appropriate involvement of (1) central office, (2) building-level staff, (3) team or department, and (4) individual staff members.

Steps to success (section **C** following).
Assessing needs, setting objectives, selecting appropriate activities, obtaining resources (people, time, money), evaluating results.
Tips on managing details.

9:45 Individual or small group diagnosis for the local situation; determination of possible staff/program improvement objectives through use of **Worksheet 1.**

10:00 Reports from groups.

10:15 Break.

10:30 Mini-lecture: Models of staff improvement plans.
Building-level or small school district—teams, departments, individuals (section **D** following).
Large school district (section **E** following).
School consortia (section **F** following).

11:00 Individual or small group identification of present or potential resources through use of **Worksheet 2.**

11:30 Reports from groups.

12:00 Lunch

1:00 Action plan for staff/program improvement through use of **Worksheet 3.**

2:00 Development of follow-up plan through use of **Worksheet 4** by teams or individuals.

2:45 Reflections on adult learning through use of **Worksheet 5.**

3:15 Mini-lecture: Keys to motivating staff.
Characteristics of the adult learner (section **G** following), how to turn staff members on (and avoid turning them off!), appropriate involvement.

3:45 Workshop evaluation through questions and answers to potential conductors participating (**Worksheet 6**) or planning process evaluation (**Worksheet 7**) for those who will be participating in planning workshops.

4:00 Adjournment.

The workshop is begun by asking participants to define their perceptions of staff development through the use of the following pretest. (Ask participants to answer all or select questions individually or in small groups.)

A. Pre-Test–To Get Us Started

1. How would you define "staff development"?
2. Who is your district/building is responsible for staff development? How was this decided?
3. Who in your building/team/district now plans for and carries out staff development activities?
4. Who else could (should) be involved?
5. What are your current staff development emphases in the building/district? How were they determined?
6. What is the usual method of delivery of staff development services?
7. How is your current staff development program evaluated?

The "set" for the workshop is provided through an introductory mini-lecture which includes the content of sections **B** and **C** following.

B. Defining Staff Development

Staff development is all those programs designed to improve the competency of school personnel at all levels with the express intent of improving the quality of learning for students. A comprehensive staff development program operates on two levels:

1) Orientation: Participants are exposed to new ideas or content on a level designed to expand their general understanding in their own or related fields. Such programs encourage them to continue to be active learners maintaining a lively, broad-based educational interest and curiosity.

2) In-depth, long-term: Participants are involved in long-term (semester, full-year) periods of training designed to focus on learning of specific materials or techniques which are expected to result in identifiable change in behavior on the part of the learner/staff member. Often this training emphasizes new ways of working with students, such as the inquiry teaching method which requires the practice of new questioning techniques. Built-in practice and review over time are essential to this level of change.

The comprehensive staff development program has three areas of focus:

1) Curriculum-related: Participants work with new materials, usually requiring different teaching strategies from those currently being employed, or learn new teaching strategies which may be applied to any curricular area. This area also includes study related to human development and its implications for curriculum and schools.

2) Organization-related: Participants engage in activities which enable them to work confidently in situations which require different kinds of interrelationships due to the introduction of organizational changes. An example of this would be skill training needed to accompany a move into team teaching.

3) Personal development: Participants carry out activities designed to meet their individual professional growth needs. For example, participants learn about and practice skills designed to enable them to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships with students and colleagues.

C. Steps for Establishing a Successful Staff Development Program

Step 1: Examine your priorities. How important is staff development to you, personally? How committed are you to providing for it in competition with other important time budget requirements? How much support can you recruit for it from your central administration/building staff?

Step 2: Decide who can provide leadership and assign responsibility to him/her. Consider the individuals with whom you work. Who are the people with *real* power? Who has special interest in the area of staff development? What needs to be done to recruit the natural leaders to support staff development efforts? In your best judgment, who can best provide leadership? Select your best candidate, give him or her the assignment.

Step 3: Decide who needs to be involved in the staff development planning. Remember that *nobody* does anything unless he or she has decided to do it. This includes learning *anything*. Consequently, the business of deciding is crucial, and one of the best ways to get anyone to decide is to have him or her involved in the process of decision-making. It is important that anyone who will be involved in the activity be involved at some level of planning or decision-

making. You may want to have a small group plan, take the plan to the larger group for input or revision and suggestion as to how each one of them might be involved, for example. The surest "kiss of death" to a staff development program is for one individual or group of individuals to decide what other people need and should do—particularly in view of the sometimes implied criticism which too often accompanies staff development efforts.

Step 4: Decide what needs to be done. Determine in some way what kind of staff improvement is needed and for what purpose. In the absence of anything better, use the "think, share, and decide" system. Other sources of direction might be the PDK instrument, test scores, community survey.

Step 5: Establish a staff development plan. Include a timeline and individuals responsible, with a complete description of activities. One of the frequent complaints teachers have about staff development activities is that they are poorly planned, organized, or timed. Little things like having a projector malfunction can destroy a climate.

Step 6: Identify resources—human and material. All school districts have resources—both financial and human—which are not being fully used. They can be identified by creative thinking about possible capabilities related to needs.

Step 7: Decide what you will accept as evidence of success of the staff development effort. It is not necessary to start with "80% of the teachers will . . . ," but it is important to state what evidence you will accept that the program has been successful. One way is to say, "I will be satisfied with the results of the program if_____happens."

Step 8: Take into account the personal satisfaction needs of participants. Staff development efforts are successful to the degree that they speak to the personal needs of the staff members who participate. The needs may be lower level Maslowian needs such as comfort or they may be higher level needs—needs for self-confidence, independence, achievement, competence, status or recognition, appreciation, deserved respect of one's fellows. Unless these needs are planned for they may not be met, and to the degree that they are not met, the staff development effort will fail.

Step 9: Decide what follow-up activities will be a part of or which

will be used subsequent to the execution of the plan, and what next steps should be taken, if any. Too often staff development efforts are of the one-shot variety, or of very short duration. Change does not often come quickly, but usually is a result of repeated exposure to small increments, with practice or gestation time in between. Once learned, a new technique or knowledge needs to be refreshed from time to time and this "refreshing" needs to be built into the original plan.

The preceding materials were preparatory to the administration of **Worksheet 1**, the needs assessment sheet. To use this worksheet, participants should determine first individually, and then with other members of their work group, what emphases are suitable for their staff/program improvement plan. The concerns should then be listed by number in order of priority. Identification of group needs is followed by a discussion in which groups report on their selection of priorities, negotiating a common set of priorities if appropriate.

Another mini-lecture follows the initial needs assessment, the emphasis of which is dependent upon the mix of the group of participants. In sections **D**, **E**, and **F** following, model programs are presented to represent different organizational arrangements—building level or small school district, large school district, and consortium. Greatest detail is provided here for the building level program in anticipation that this workshop will most often be replicated at that level.

D. Model Staff Improvement Program at Building Level for Small School District (Teams, Departments, Individuals)

Determining needs: State as clearly as possible the greatest need(s) you feel in your particular assignment/building/district. Focus on improvement of the instructional program, not nitty-gritty management unless this is necessary to support the specific instructional program improvement. Example of need: Too many students are not reading well.

Supportive data: Provide specific information which identifies a need. Example: 25% of graduating students read below grade level.

Worksheet 1
Needs Assessment

Determine suitable emphases first individually, then with other member of your work group. Number concerns in order of priority.

Priority	Most serious problems/challenges in your particular assignment	Your reasons for believing they are important	How can you verify your opinion? What data should be collected?

Setting goals or objectives: State as clearly as possible exactly what you hope to accomplish. Example: Cut by 50% the number of graduating students reading below grade level.

Skills/knowledge needed: Identify skills/knowledge needed by staff (who needs to know what to be able to do what—new information and/or skills). Example: All secondary teachers need to have rudimentary skills in teaching of reading.

Develop an action plan: List activities in which you can help to meet the need or accomplish the goal/objective. Examples:

1) Hold three training sessions to enable all teachers to identify those students who are reading below grade level.
2) Study the history of each student identified.
3) Select the most likely candidates for improvement.
4) Develop a remedial plan for each student chosen.
5) Organize four task forces of teachers of those students to receive in-depth training in reading improvement techniques, name a chairperson of each task force, and schedule regular meetings of chairpersons to coordinate efforts.
6) Teachers of identified students will employ remediation techniques and maintain records showing effects of remediation.

Set time limits: Build a calendar which clearly states when each activity will be completed and who will be responsible. Examples:

1) By end of September—Principal, Remedial Reading Specialist, all teachers.
2) By end of October—Principal, Remedial Reading Specialist, all teachers.
3) By November 15—Principal, Remedial Reading Teacher.
4) By December 15—Principal, Remedial Reading Teacher, all teachers.
5) By January 15—Principal, Task Force Chairpersons.

Define meeting schedules:

1) Task Force meetings in January, February, March, and April.
2) Full staff meetings (focused on reading problems)—Principal, Remedial Reading Specialist, Task Force Chairpersons.

Evaluation: State as clearly as possible how you will know whether or not you have been successful. Try to rely on actual evidence or observable change rather than opinion. Examples:

1) All students reading below grade level will have been identified.
2) There will be a written analysis of each student's reading history containing a tentative diagnosis of his or her problem.
3) Records kept on each student selected for the 1980/81 project will show that at least 50% of the students involved will be reading at grade level.
4) Each teacher will provide a record of the identified students in his or her class, a plan of remediation, and will keep a log of remediation activities focused on the student's needs.
5) Each teacher involved will be able to:
   a) identify students with reading problems;
   b) design appropriate remedial strategies; and
   c) carry those strategies out.

E. Model Staff Improvement Program for a Large School District

Needs assessment: As a result of a three-year cycle of evaluation (first year, elementary; second year, junior high; third year, senior high), a number of recommendations were made for improving the junior high program. Among these was that the district move toward installation of a teacher-advisor system to provide each student with a particular adult with whom he or she can relate closely throughout the junior high years.

Supportive data: Surveys indicated that many students did not feel that there was one adult in their school to whom they could come with problems, either personal or academic.

Objectives: All junior high buildings will develop plans to (1) provide each student with a teacher-advisor, (2) determine the function of such a teacher-advisor, and (3) collect data on the project to determine further direction.

Skills/knowledge needed by staff: (1) Classroom teachers need basic counseling skills and information about appropriate guidance activities to be used with students. (2) Classroom teachers need familiarity with referral services for students with serious problems. (3) Counselors need skills in working with their colleagues to assist

them with their counseling activities. (4) All staff members need many experiences in personal interaction to assist them in understanding themselves and others better.

Plan

Activity:	*Responsible:*	*Time Line:*
1. Workshop prior to opening of school during which teachers work with counselors in basic counseling techniques, developing guidance activities, grouping of students, and practicing group process skills.	Principal Counselor, Teacher Committee, Director of Staff Development	August
2. Continuous staff development course on teacher-advisor system where counseling and interpersonal skills are expanded and reinforced, practical problems are identified and evolved.	Principal, Director of Staff Development, Consultant from University	Weekly, first semester

Evaluation: (1) 85% of the students and the parents indicated satisfaction with the program. 80% of the teachers and counselors indicated satisfaction. (2) 90% of the students indicated that they had an adult to whom they could go with a problem in contrast with 70% before the installation of the teacher-advisor program. (3) Teachers expressed concern about the amount of time involved now and counselors felt some discomfort with the indefiniteness of their role.

F. Model Staff Improvement Program for a Consortium

Needs assessment: Representatives (usually superintendents) from each of seven school districts in geographic proximity met to identify topics which could profitably be addressed as a group. They concurred that there would be value in providing an opportunity for certain of their staff members to visit, observe, and critique exemplary programs in each district for purposes of communication and mutual support.

Objective: To identify outstanding programs within the consortium group, and to provide opportunities for visitation and follow-up assistance as needed.

Skills/knowledge needed by staff: (1) Staff members in "visited" schools needed to be able to describe their program goals clearly and

respond to questions. (2) "Visitors" needed to have advance information and be knowledgeable about what to look for and how to ask questions inoffensively. (3) Visitors needed to be able to develop a feedback report in a form which could actually facilitate change in the local district if changes seemed advisable as a result of the visitation.

Plan

Activity:	*Responsible:*	*Time-Line:*
1. Pre-visit seminar in all local districts to set the stage for the visitors, whether from the perspective of the visiting or visited district.	Local officials, consortium coordinator	September
2. "Caravan West" organized for three days to the three westernmost school districts.	Local districts being visited, officials from visiting districts, consortium coordinator	Mid-October
3. Post-visit seminar for all local districts to determine usefulness of the visit, make recommendations for remaining "Caravans," and determine local application, if any.	Local district officials, consortium coordinator	October 20

Evaluation: (1) Each participant was able to identify and give basic characteristics of at least two programs observed in the other districts which were different from those in the local district, and to give strengths and weaknesses of each as determined by his or her judgment with supporting data. (2) Staff members visited reported some trepidation at first, but found visitors very supportive and found the experience rewarding. They reported that they understood their own programs better for having presented them to their visiting colleagues. (3) Visitors identified a number of practices which they would like to modify or incorporate directly into their programs. They expressed the opinion that they would look more carefully at their own activities as a result of having observed.

At this point in the program, when needs have been assessed and models have been reviewed, participants identify potential resources through the completion of **Worksheet 2.** After groups have reported on the needs they have identified on the worksheet and the lunch break permits further discussion of this and other issues raised

Worksheet 2
Identification of Resources

Persons now available	Area of expertise	Additional needed	Potential sources
Central Administration:			
Principals:			
Teachers:			
Others:			

Things now available (money, facilities, equipment, supplies)	Additional needed	Potential sources

Time now available	Additional needed	Potential time

Worksheet 3
Staff Development/Program Improvement Action Plan

Needs assessment "Why" has this need been identified?	Goals/objectives "What" will be accomplished?	Skills needed By "whom"?
Statement of Need #1	To _____	_____
	_____	_____
	_____	_____
Supportive data for Need #1: _____		
Statement of Need #2	To _____	_____
	_____	_____
	_____	_____
Supportive data for Need #2: _____		
Statement of Need #3	To _____	_____
	_____	_____
	_____	_____
Supportive data for Need #3: _____		

Description of activities "What" will be done?	Schedule of activities "When" will they be held?	Leadership "Who" will be responsible?	Evaluation—"How" will you know it was successful?
1. _____	Date(s) _____	_____	Evidence expected:
2. _____	_____		
3. _____	_____		
1. _____	Date(s) _____	_____	Evidence expected:
2. _____	_____		
3. _____	_____		
1. _____	Date(s) _____	_____	Evidence expected:
2. _____	_____		
3. _____	_____		
1. _____	Date(s) _____	_____	Evidence expected.
2. _____	_____		
3. _____	_____		
1. _____	Date(s) _____	_____	Evidence expected:
2. _____	_____		
3. _____	_____		
1. _____	Date(s) _____	_____	Evidence expected:
2. _____	_____		
3. _____	_____		

in the course of the morning's workshop, participants are ready as small groups to tackle **Worksheet 3.** Consisting of two parts, this worksheet balances specific areas of assessed need against activities designed to correct deficiencies. After group execution of the third worksheet, individual or team responsibilty for follow-through is pinpointed in **Worksheet 4.**

Having been exposed to theories of staff and program improvement in the day's mini-lectures and having formalized needs and projected programs through the use of worksheets, participants must be reminded that too often, when they are back at home, personal interaction is forgotten, and it is hard to follow through. **Worksheet 5** is intended to provide individual psychological commitment to the day's activities by associating them with personal experiences of motivation and interaction. Discussion with other groups as this workshop is completed provides the opportunity to move positively toward the achievement of established goals.

The concluding mini-lecture reinforces the psychological aspects of the preceding activities by addressing the topic of motivating other staff members. This lecture should draw heavily upon the anecdotal experiences of the speaker and invite the recounting of similar experiences by participants. It reminds participants of the need to take truisms about aging and the process of adult learning into account in involving adults in the change process.

G. Characteristics of Adult Learners (Mini-Lecture)

As we plan for staff improvement, we are planning learning experiences for adults, primarily. Some of the characteristics of adult learning which may have relevance to improving processes or instituting new ones are:

- Learnings come primarily as a result of satisfaction and reward. A crucial point is that the learner must see the experience as helping him or her reach a goal which has personal meaning.
- Adult learning, if it is to be effective, must be based on the tremendous resources of experience which any adult has. A good learning activity includes recognition of this vast reservoir of concepts, attitudes, experiences, and knowledge. It

will deliberately provide for transfer of learning between this fund of stored knowledge and skills to the new situation.

- The stability of adult value systems may make change and acceptance of new points of view more difficult.
- The extensive variety of experience which an adult brings with him may make it more difficult for the adult to see new concepts and ideas without distortion.

Worksheet 4
Follow-Up

1. What is your responsibility in carrying out this plan?

2. What steps will you take to see that this project is carried out? (Be specific!)

3. How will you determine the next steps to be taken following the completion of this action plan?

- Adults have an increasing need to be self-directed. Consequently, voluntary self-improvement activities are more apt to be successful than those which are mandatory.
- Learning for adults is more successful if it is problem centered and action oriented with immediate application possible.
- Adults learn better in a climate which is informal, respectful, and where there is mutual planning, mutual goal-setting, and mutual evaluation with considerable emphasis on self-diagnosis.
- Staff development for adults is better received if it provides options for reaching learning objectives. Three which seem to work are:
  1) highly structured, specific, instructor-led;
  2) somewhat structured, more independent work (example: learning center);
  3) independent work, with resources available.

Conclusion

The importance of evaluation to the process of staff or program improvement is stressed by the final two worksheets. One, **Worksheet 6,** provides the conductor of a workshop with the means of assessing its relevance to the needs of persons who will model their own workshops on the one which they have just attended. **Worksheet 7** is for participants at workshops in which specific program plans were formulated.

Worksheet 5
Thinking About Learning

1. Give an example of something you learned recently.

2. What motivated you to learn it?

3. Describe a less-than-successful learning experience you have had recently. What would have made it a more positive experience?

4. Think about the most successful staff improvement program you have ever been part of. List all the adjectives you can which describe it in any way.

5. What "people" things should we pay attention to as we plan for staff improvement?

6. Discuss with your group the implication your answers have for planning staff improvement activities. Write five rules beginning either "Do" or "Don't."

Worksheet 6
Workshop Evaluation
(To be completed by participants who attend the workshop leader session.)

Please indicate the degree to which you felt the workshop goals were achieved:

	Very well	Reasonably well	Not achieved
1. Identification of key components of an effective staff improvement program:	_____	_____	_____
2. Identification of "free and inexpensive" resources available to all school districts:	_____	_____	_____
3. Examination of successful models fitting a variety of situations:	_____	_____	_____
4. Planning for the human needs associated with successful staff development:	_____	_____	_____
5. Development of a practical staff improvement plan applicable to the local situation:	_____	_____	_____

What will you be able to use from this workshop? _____

_____

_____

What else would have been helpful? _____

_____

_____

What could or should be left out or changed? _____

_____

_____

Comments: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Worksheet 7
Planning Process Evaluation
(To be completed by those actually involved in the "at home" planning sessions.)

In order to help us assess the effectiveness of our planning process, please answer the following questions, either individually or in small groups:

1. What were the advantages and disadvantages of the manner in which you identified program/staff improvement needs?

What recommendations would you make for improving the process?

2. In what ways was the process of developing a plan for program/staff improvement helpful to you?

What problems did you encounter in working through the process?

How would you suggest that this process be improved?

3. How can continued participation and follow-through to the planning be facilitated and insured?

Who (from the central office, building administration, state department of education, intermediate service agency, institution of higher education, etc.) should or could be involved in monitoring and/or evaluating the project as it proceeds?

4. What additional help do you need to carry out the plan developed or to complete the planning process?